

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED IN CO-OPERATION WITH COMMITTEES OF

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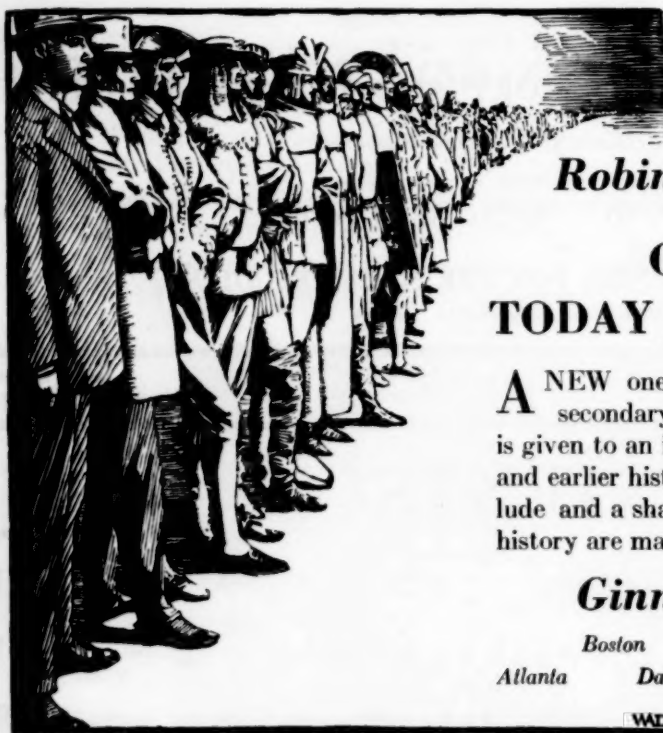
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This, the May issue, is the last of the numbers of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK to be published during the present school year. Beginning with the current volume, XVI, the magazine will be published eight times a year instead of nine as formerly. The reduction in the number of issues will be more than offset by an increase in the amount of material in each issue, and by a more effective editorial co-operation with the National Council for the Social Studies.

Of particular value to every teacher of history and the other social studies will be a series of articles beginning in October, 1925 and continuing through the school year to May, 1926. History and the Social Studies in each grade of the Junior and Senior High School will be treated in a single number. The Seventh Grade will be discussed in the October number, followed by the other grades in successive issues, and closing with a general survey in May, 1926. While the names of all the editors in charge of the respective grades cannot yet be definitely announced, four of the best known specialists have already accepted.

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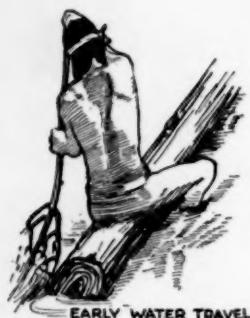
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History

ONE OF A SERIES OF LECTURES GIVEN TO THE FRESHMAN CLASS IN HARVARD COLLEGE ON THE PRINCIPAL SUBJECTS OF THE CURRICULUM, BY PROFESSOR CHARLES H. HASKINS, HARVARD UNIVERSITY

A very large subject for a very short time. Let us try to clarify it by considering history under three headings, as a body of knowledge, as a method of inquiry, and as a point of view.

I.

History as a body of knowledge. History is a large subject, because it deals with the whole life of humanity. It deals with the whole past in time, from the beginning of historical evidence down to the present moment, with the whole breadth in space, for history makes no discrimination between peoples, though some have, for shorter or longer periods, a larger place than others. One is always in the foreground. Furthermore, history covers every variety of human activity; since it deals with the whole of the past of humanity, it is as many-sided as life itself. History is concerned with governments, war, diplomacy, with the efforts of men to get a living, with social organization and activities, and also with the expression of the human spirit in art, philosophy, and literature. All these are a part of the general theme of history. For convenience, it is true, we separate some of these out for special study, since the history of philosophy can best be explained by one who knows something of the fundamental problems of philosophy, and the history of art and of literature involves some element of artistic and literary appreciation. We must, however, not forget that from the point of view of the historian this is merely a matter of convenience, and that these several histories are all parts of a whole which is really indivisible.

History, being so large and varied a theme, may be treated in many different ways. There are long books and short books, histories of particular peoples, periods, institutions, or forms of human activity. Individual historians, too, differ greatly in their approach to the subject. In Carlyle, for example, the individual looms very large, his heroes distorting the perspective until history becomes a kind of glorified biography. In Macaulay, you will find something about individuals, but more about the political movements in which they took part, while in his third chapter there is a vivid description of English society in 1685. H. G. Well's *Outline of History* is quite different; his view of history has been widened by the discoveries of modern sciences respecting the early history of the human race, and by the present importance of the peoples of other continents than Europe. A large portion of his history treats of the

period before the ordinary books of ancient history begin—from the primeval chaos to the chaos of our own time. In the essays of Professor James Harvey Robinson you will find a new interest in social history and in the development of the human mind, especially the unconscious mind.

Then, too, each age writes its own histories. None of these is final, for two reasons: First, we keep learning more about the past. Thus, the history of Egypt is being remade before our eyes by discoveries of new material, which are sometimes so sensational as to reach the front page of the daily papers. So, at the modern end, the antecedents of the Great War are being illuminated by fresh publications from European archives. More important still is the new point of view, for every age looks at the past from the angle of its own present, and would rewrite history for its own purposes even if the body of information remained unchanged. Take as an illustration the American Civil War. Those who had fought the battles were interested in strategy and tactics, so that the early histories of the Civil War are purely military. Then men began slowly to see that the Civil War was something more than a series of battles or a question of bravery, that the blockade in the South and industrial development in the North were of the utmost importance. With the Great War, still other elements have come into the picture, such as munitions, transportation, morale, and all that went on behind the lines, so that a history of the Civil War written now would be different from one written before 1914. The same is true of all great historical topics, like the French Revolution, the Reformation, the Renaissance, the causes of the fall of the Roman Empire. All history is from time to time being rewritten from new points of view.

The mass and variety of historical knowledge at first seem overwhelming, but, on the other hand, it is this very variety that gives the subject some interest for every student. If history is as many-sided as life, anyone who is interested in the life of the present will respond to some phase of the life of the past. History gives answers to the fundamental human curiosity regarding our ancestors and our antecedents, while it shows the evolution of human society through all its stages. By its very nature it is a human subject with a broad and very human appeal. This is one reason, though not the only reason, for the existence of history.

II.

History as a method of inquiry. By virtue of the fact that history deals with the past, it has a method of inquiry quite its own. The historian's knowledge is indirect, whereas the knowledge of the scientist is direct. The biologist observes plants and animals; the chemist or physicist conducts experiments in his laboratory under conditions which he can control. The historian, on the contrary, cannot experiment and can rarely observe. Only an exceedingly small body of facts comes under the direct observation of the historian at any moment, for the past is quite out of his reach, and most of the present he cannot see. Those of us who have lived through the Great War, or even participated in it, derive most of our knowledge of that period from newspapers and books; battles are fought by bodies of troops that never see each other, and even the general is far behind the lines, getting his information by telephone and other second-hand means. The historian's knowledge thus comes to him at second hand out of the evidence which the past has left behind. This evidence—books, letters, memoirs, papers, buildings, jewelry, clothing, weapons, skeletons, etc.—is called the sources of history. Its preservation is purely a matter of accident, for time is no respecter of sources; much that is trivial has been preserved, and many of the best pieces of historical evidence have been destroyed, so that the historian is absolutely limited by the sources that have reached him.

The historian is thus, in the first instance, a collector of evidence, but he is also a sifter of evidence. His material is of very unequal value, and he must distinguish very much as we distinguish in ordinary life between the sensational and the veracious newspaper report, between the trustworthy and the untrustworthy individual. The operations which we are unconsciously performing every day he must perform with conscious and deliberate criticism for all of his sources. At this point he comes very close to the scientist. Furthermore, he needs to interpret, reimagine, and combine his evidence in the form of articles, monographs, textbooks, or more detailed histories, which shall recreate the past for his readers. He is judged not only by the thoroughness of his research and the keenness of his criticism, but by his qualities of insight, of imagination, and of clarity of thought, as well as by the attractiveness and skill with which his material is finally presented in literary form. Unless we understand something of this method we cannot test the validity of his conclusions.

The historical method, this method of indirect inquiry and criticism, is used first and foremost by the historian, but not by him alone, for there is no other method of dealing with past facts. Whether you want to search out some new fact in the biography of Shakespeare, or study the background of Leonardo da Vinci as artist and scientist, or examine the formation of the Federal Constitution, or trace fluctuations in currencies, or the effects of tariffs, the facts are discoverable only by the method of the historian.

Students of the other humanities and social sciences do not always appreciate this, and sometimes accept with insufficient scrutiny evidence which will not stand the acid tests of the historian.

III.

History as a point of view. Besides being a body of knowledge concerning the human past, and having a special method of inquiry for arriving at such knowledge, history has a distinct point of view. The historical way of looking at things, sometimes called historical-mindedness, is easier perhaps to experience than to define. It implies a critical attitude toward statements regarding the past. It also involves imagination and sympathy, the ability to see both sides of a question, and the power of looking at things from the point of view of other peoples and of other times. The historian seeks to understand the past rather than to judge it by his own temporary and more or less arbitrary standards. Chesterton says somewhere that it was once the fashion to give the characters of history halos or halters, but that the present tendency is to give them simply voices; in other words, to let them speak for themselves.

A more distinctive characteristic of the historical point of view is the conception of continuity and development. This is something comparatively recent. Some people have thought of the past as a series of explosions, nothing of importance happening between upheavals; the high points of history would thus be its catastrophes. Another view, which was very popular in ancient times, is that history is a series of cycles, repeating itself at longer or shorter intervals. Neither of these views has stood the test of recent historical investigation. History does not repeat itself; today is never quite the same as yesterday. Wars recur, but each war is different from the one before, even in its weapons. A political party comes back into power, but never under quite the same conditions. One of the clearest results of modern study is that history does not repeat itself. Bryce, indeed, says that it is "the chief practical advantage of history to deliver us from misleading analogies" between one period and another. Lavisce declares that the most important thing in history is the differences that separate one age and one people from another, "without differences no history."

If history repeated itself, the historian could claim great practical utility for his subject. If in the loom of time pattern A is always followed by pattern B, the historian could always predict the appearance of pattern B, and the greater one's knowledge of history, the greater one's success in war or politics or on the stock market. If the past does not exactly repeat itself, the possibility of prediction is very much diminished, save for closely circumscribed sets of facts, such as prices.

If history cannot foretell the future, has it any lessons or practical utility? The lessons of history are likely, it is true, to be rather indirect than direct, and hence often to be overlooked. Moreover, those who declare most loudly what history teaches are often those who least understand its nature and mean-

ing. Perhaps history's chief lesson is just this fact of development. The life of mankind is not a series of explosions or a series of repetitions, but a process of constant change and adjustment. If today is different from yesterday, tomorrow will be different from today. If we cannot say just how tomorrow will be different, it is a great point to know that at least it will be different. This process of change all intelligent men need to understand. It cannot be hastened overmuch by revolution, nor can it be stopped entirely by reaction or conservatism. Neither the extreme radical nor the blind conservative finds support in history, which is a record of perpetual change and readjustment. The world never stands still, nor does it jump.

Moreover, though today is different from yesterday, it has been shaped by yesterday. The present can be understood only by the past which has produced it, and sometimes this past is very remote. This is true of specific institutions of all kinds, as well as the whole present political and social conditions of the world. You all hope to become Bachelors of Arts. What is meant by Bachelors? what by Arts? Only history can tell you. On the Commencement platform, if you reach it, the Sheriff of Middlesex will call the assembly to order with his sword. Why the Sheriff? why the sword? why the name Middlesex? All these take us very far back into the history of the English race. So for the understanding of our time in general, history affords the necessary perspective. Without it we get no notion what are the more permanent and what the more accidental and transient elements in contemporary life. History gives the base-line, the remoteness for a longer view. Lord Morley cites a comparison of the his-

torian to the bird who rises high enough to see a series of islands as parts of a single submerged range of mountains, not as the isolated bits of land which they appear to be at sea level. History is the perspective of the human race, as well as its memory. It explains much that would otherwise be unintelligible. It widens our sympathy, steadies our judgment, and enlarges our experience.

IV.

History, then, may be regarded in three different ways, as (1) a body of interesting and significant knowledge, full of vital and vivid pictures and important facts respecting the life and people of the past; (2) as a method of inquiry, which all the humanities and social sciences are obliged to use, sometimes without knowing it; and (3) as a certain point of view in relation to mankind. You might say that its subject-matter is that of the humanities, but that its exacting methods are akin to those of the sciences. It looks in both directions, and has contacts on all sides. Consequently, there is no more central subject in the college curriculum, and it serves to fill out and connect other subjects. It links up art and literature with the peoples that produced them. It traces the application of science and industry to the larger uses of mankind. It binds together the varied forms of human effort. Sooner or later it touches most fields of intellectual inquiry. It would be hard to find a subject of college study which is more comprehensive, more many-sided, and more significant. Few of you will study history all your lives, but all of you can, even without specialization, acquire in college enough of history to give you perhaps a permanent interest and at least a wider outlook upon the past, and thus upon the present of the world in which you are to live.

The Shibboleth of the Frontier

BY PROFESSOR JOHN C. ALMACK, STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CALIFORNIA

For thirty years American historical thought has been dominated by the frontier shibboleth. The theory means, in all essential particulars, that the controlling factor in American life and character has been the frontier. First pronounced by Professor Frederick J. Turner, at a meeting of the American Historical Association in 1892, it has come to be generally accepted and to serve as the chief guide to historical interpretation. No one has criticized it, no one has questioned it. It seems not unfair to say that both Professor Turner and his pupils have devoted more time to substantiating the theory by repetition than to testing its truth.

Some of the faith in the frontier doctrine may undoubtedly be attributed to its unusually happy phrasing. It was presented in a charming style. It has been given force and power through the sympathetic imagination of its author. To illustrate this point

and to show something of its significance, consider the following quotations:

"What the Mediterranean was to the Greeks, breaking the bonds of custom, offering new experiences, calling out new institutions and activities—that and more, the frontier has been to the United States directly."¹

"Grappling with new problems under these [frontier] conditions in society....developed inventive-ness, resourcefulness, the restraints of custom were broken, and new activities, new lines of growth, new institutions were produced....The American spirit has developed in the new commonwealths. In these new lands Americans achieved a boldness of the conception of the country's destiny and democracy."²

But, it may be said, false generalizations do not change the facts of history. This is granted. They do, however, change selection and emphasis. They do determine conclusions. History is more than a

chronicle of events. It has no meaning until it is interpreted. Now, some historians consider interpretation complete when cause and effect relations have been shown. Others are content with pointing out association without assuming more than tendencies in movements and events to occur together. Both usually try to unify events and personalities by a philosophy which emphasizes cause. By either method, as well, unless the historian is very critical and impartial, he is likely to have some of his facts lacking to his theory.

At all events, the exponents of any historical philosophy should take account of the implications contained in it. It is just at this point that over-enthusiasm for an abstract idea may interfere with the plain purpose of history—which is to reveal the truth. The frontier theory appears to be nothing more than a diluted type of Marxian determinism; its foundation an unmistakable materialism, conceiving of men as the slaves of forces over which they have little influence and no control.

The inferences which may be drawn are many. First, the doctrine undoubtedly implies a belief that humanity is shaped by its physical environment. There are many—and Francis Galton may be cited as an example—who refuse to accept this view. Second, it assumes that hardships promote individual and social well being. It is not surprising that our historians should have been unable to escape this hang-over of Puritanism. Third, the mainstay of the theory is a belief in sectionalism, with the frontiersmen arrayed against the remainder of the population, the frontier point of view finally coming to dominate.

Whether any of the implications are significant or not depends to some extent upon the meaning of frontier. The term has been very loosely applied. Turner says, "The most significant thing about it is that it lies at the hither edge of free land." Paxson declares, "The American frontier was a line, a region, or a process, according to the context in which the word is used." Continuing, we find:³

"As a process, its most significant meaning is found. A universal common task was impressing its standardizing influence upon all the people who came within its reach. Everywhere on the frontier civilization was being manufactured out of raw material and personnel. Few persons came to the frontier except to make homes for themselves and to stake their hardihood against the chances of isolation and hardship. Most of them had little to hope for in their older homes, and made the emigration to advance their chances and their children's. For the interval between two generations, in any frontier region, the typical life was that of the frontier farmer clearing his fields and building his cabins...."

"The frontier as a region was that area of the United States in which the frontier process was going on at any moment....The lines that can be drawn delimiting the zone of from two to six to the square mile are frontier lines that help the historian to fix his attention upon the frontier of any date."

The concepts which have been given have geographical, economic, political, and sociological elements. Combining them as nearly as possible in a single definition, we have the following:

"The frontier is an isolated and sparsely settled area, where the primary process of occupation is going on."

Few would deny that physical isolation, as exemplified in lack of facilities of transportation and communication, and the process or conditions of living, are most significant aspects of the frontier. With a definition accepted a basis is laid by which the truth of the frontier theory may be tested. Three points of attack are indicated:

1. A comparison of the frontier of the past with the non-frontier. A cross-section of a typical period, say, 1830-1860, would seem to be a fair selection for study.
2. A comparison of the frontier of 1830-1860 with the non-frontier of today.
3. A comparison of the frontier of today with the non-frontier. Our frontier areas are decidedly limited, but one might suggest such regions as the Ozark mountains, and the mountain area of Kentucky and Tennessee, where the frontier of 1830-1860 has projected itself into the midst of twentieth-century civilization. Areas in other states—Arizona, Nevada, Montana, and Oregon—might also be studied, to say nothing of pioneer areas in foreign countries: Canada, Africa, Siberia, and Australia.

No such extensive investigation is reported in this paper. Its purpose is rather to call attention to some of the limitations of the frontier theory and to attempt to define the issue. The contention, therefore, is that the Turner theory is not based upon the facts. American life has been built up from too many points to entitle any one of them to all or even the most of the credit. It has been and is as much a thing of the spirit as of the material. The causes of its development are no less subjective than objective. The contributions of the older communities are in every way equal to the contributions of the frontier. It is not believed that everything good and unique in American history had its origin on the frontier.

The merits of the frontier environment have already been sufficiently portrayed. No claim is made here that there were not merits. However, in taking the negative side of the discussion, one is compelled to present evidence destructive in character, and cannot always give due recognition to that which is admirable. Here, only short samples of the great mass of material on the subject can be given. Further investigation is needed before it approaches the conclusive. In order that undue prejudice may not be charged, and, moreover, to show that the exponents of the frontier theory did not altogether ignore the shortcomings of their doctrine, preference is given to matter taken from Turner and his followers.

First, let us consider whether frontier communities made a distinctive contribution to education. Our

early educational system was brought over from England. The educational revival, which resulted in the building of the foundation of our present system, commenced in Massachusetts, which furnished the stimulus and the pattern for educational organization throughout the country. On the frontier, there was a dearth of those factors which foster intellectual activity—of schools, books, and newspapers. Comparing four frontier states in 1850 with two non-frontier states, in respect to the number of colleges, academies, schools, libraries, newspapers, and defectives, we find a general superiority for the non-frontier. Inasmuch as the area of the non-frontier states is much less than of the frontier states, we are justified in saying that conditions were really much better in the former than indicated. The figures refer to number per thousand inhabitants:

Frontier Areas (1850). Paxson's Definition.

States	Col- leges	Acade- mies	Schools	Libra- ries	News- papers	De- fec- tives
California	0	.6	.02	0	.7	.02
Iowa	.001	.15	4.0	.15	.14	1.3
Missouri	.001	.34	2.6	.16	.1	1.8
Oregon	0	0	.23	0	.16	.7
Non-Frontier Areas (1850).						
Massachusetts	.005	.39	3.7	1.4	2.1	3.3
Ohio	.01	.11	6.0	1.3	.13	2.1

One other related matter may be mentioned. It is the cities and the older settled areas that supply our leaders and our geniuses. The studies of Cattell, Woods, Ellis, Davies, and Lodge uniformly confirm this statement. That of Lodge⁴ may be given in more detail. He studied (in 1891) 14,243 names found in Appleton's *Encyclopedia of American Biography*, finding the various sections contributing as follows:

New England	5456
Middle States	5021
Southern States	3125
Western States	641

In other words, those areas farthest removed from the pioneer period and pioneer conditions supply the greatest number of intellectual leaders.

The results of army intelligence testing throw some light on the general subject. A small sample of recruits was selected—about 13,000 in all. The number from the states most closely approaching the pioneer stage was very small. However, correlating intelligence with density of population (Spearman ranks method) gives us:

$$r = .299 = .0087,$$

signifying that there is a slight tendency for the less thickly populated states to stand higher in intelligence. Nevertheless, assuming that the ranks give a true picture of conditions, there is an explanation that indicates, if comparisons on the 1890 basis were possible, the frontier would actually be at a disadvantage. The poorer showing of the more thickly populated states seems to be due to the South European element, which stood relatively low on the intelligence test, and the old slave states. Comparing states with states, with this element disregarded, the older areas stand as high as the newer. Thus, without an allowance being made, Rhode Island, which

is the most densely settled area, ranks 14 in intelligence; Nevada, the most sparsely settled state, ranks 23. New York stands thirteen places higher than Wisconsin; Georgia leads the Dakotas.

Second, what are the facts concerning economic conditions? There was an abundance of natural resources. The wealth was in lands and agriculture was usually the primary industry. Yet in point of fact, taking the frontier at its best, it was excelled by the older states. Thus, in 1850, the value of farm land in Massachusetts (which is not and never was an agricultural state) excelled the value of farm land in Iowa (which always has been an agricultural state) by \$19 per capita. Ohio led Missouri by \$25. Only Oregon, where the donation land act gave 640 acres to a family, compared favorably with the older states.

There was invariably lack of two of the requisites of production on the frontier. They were labor and capital. Mortgages and long-running store accounts—these were inevitable concomitants. Industry, instead of being varied, was of one type. Upon it all were dependent. Farming itself was not diversified. There was very little personal property. Thus, Ohio, which was entering the industrial stage by 1850, had as much wealth in farm equipment as Missouri, Iowa, or Oregon. The workers were unskilled. Gilbert,⁵ writing of early Oregon, says: "The immigrants, coming as they did from the border states along the Mississippi, possessed little technical skill, and the chief, almost the sole, occupation for a time was agriculture."

The economic disorganization is further shown by the lack of a convenient medium of exchange. Wildcat banking flourished on the frontier as in no other area. Quoting Gilbert again, we find a common frontier experience. This was the prevalence of barter. Beaver skins were a medium of exchange for years. The effect of this inconvenient currency was to render the prices of all goods purchased exorbitantly high. As the fur trade died out, wheat came in to supplant the beaver skin currency. Good merchantable wheat was actually made legal tender in 1845, in order to force the Hudson Bay Company to accept it. It was also used in payment of taxes. Cumbersome methods of exchange actually contributed to frontier isolation and poverty.

One of the chief motives of emigration was the improvement of the economic condition of the emigrants. Those who were prospering, who were property holders, did not, as a rule, seek new fields. The inadequate means of transportation, the dangers of the way, the long distances to be traversed, made impossible the taking of personal property had the emigrants possessed it. The condition of poverty which prevailed may also be illustrated by another quotation from Gilbert: "Incoming immigrants had, moreover, little or no money. They arrived in a destitute condition, and were dependent upon the Chief Factor for food and clothing and for the first season's supplies. Says an old pioneer in 1844, 'We brought no money from the states and had none until 1848.' In

that year, the 4000 Oregon settlers owed the Hudson Bay Company one hundred thousand dollars."

The westward movement coincided with the periods of economic depression. Thus, Paxson⁶ says, "When it happened that special notoriety for the West coincided with depression or panic in the East, the tide of migration reached its highest peaks....Hard times in the commercial towns of the Atlantic contributed the element of repulsion....The hard times that persisted in the East after 1807 were not fully relieved until 1819....The accelerated flow of population is clearly visible after 1811 and assumes huge proportions after 1815." Everywhere there is evidence that the people going into the new lands were economically handicapped.

The improvement, which slowly resulted, came, not as consequent of the sole efforts of the first settlers, but because of the work of succeeding groups as well. Turner would, indeed, give the main credit to the successors of the frontiersmen. He declares:⁷

"Three classes have rolled one after another. First comes the pioneer, who depends for the subsistence of his family chiefly upon the natural growth of vegetation, called the range, and the proceeds of his own hunting. His implements of agriculture are rude, chiefly of his own make....It is immaterial whether he becomes the owner of the land or not....The next class purchase the land,....make improvements, and exhibit the picture and form of plain, frugal, civilized life....Another wave rolls on. The men of capital and enterprise come....A portion of the first two classes remain stationary. Others improve their habits and condition and rise in the scale of society."

Physical inefficiency was a natural result of the exposure, the rigors, the hardships of frontier life. Improper food, neglect of the simpler sanitary precautions, and lack of medical attention could not but result in a higher death rate. Missouri's death rate in 1850 exceeded that of Ohio by six per thousand. The physical examinations of the army draft showed that more defects are present among the country bred (comparable at the worst to frontier conditions) than among the people of modern cities. The border contact with inferior races was not physically elevating. Inbreeding among the whites was itself a likely accompaniment, if not a cause, of racial decline. Of the effect on the women, Paxson has this to say:⁸

"The frontier graveyards show how hard the early life was on the women of the family. The patriarch laid to rest in his family tract beside two, three or four wives who had preceded him, is much more common than the hardy woman who outlived her husbands. The housewife came to her new home young and raw, and found for neighbors other girls as inexperienced. She bore the children, and buried a staggering number of them, for medicine and sanitation, inadequate everywhere, were out of reach for the cabin on the border."

A third question may well be raised concerning the effect of the frontier on moral and social conditions. With the exception of the distinctly religious colonies,⁹ the moral standard of the new areas was often below

that of the older settled communities. An emigration might be composed almost wholly of social undesirables: the discontented, the mentally unstable, the debtor, who wished to escape from his creditors, and the delinquent, who wished to escape punishment. Many parts of the frontier region supplied texts for sermonizing. Thus, Coman wrote of pioneer Arkansas:

"Some fifteen hundred trappers, unaccustomed to restraints, degenerate in habits and morals, supported a miserable existence in the back country, while the town population was largely composed of renegades and fugitives from justice....Rough and untamed people pursued their licentious practices unchecked."

Some allowance should doubtless be made for writers of the times, whose observations were few, on the surface, or colored by the spectacles they wore. For example, William H. Sweet, writing of the *Rise of Methodism in the Far West*, paints only the darker side of the picture. He says that frontier morality was extremely loose, and, in many communities, little attempt was made to preserve order or uphold decent morality by the civic authorities. "Travelers from the East were shocked at the balls, the drinking, the fighting, and the utter disregard paid to the Sabbath Day. Good people were terrified at the drunkenness, the vice, the gambling, the brutal fights, the gouging, the needless duels they beheld on every side."

Along the waterways "flatboatmen, raftsmen, and deckhands constituted a turbulent and reckless population, living on the country through which they passed, fighting and drinking." Schoolcraft, the geologist, who visited the White River country in Missouri, in 1819, found:

"The labors of the field (when the hunting season arrives) devolve upon the women, whose condition in such a state of society can readily be imagined. They, in fact, pursue a similar course of life with the savages, having embraced their love of ease and their contempt for agricultural pursuits."

Paxson found that the use of strong drink was common throughout the country and universal along the frontier. "A family could get along very well without butter, wheatbread, sugar, or tea, but whisky was indispensable."

The lawlessness of the mining camps is proverbial. It existed, according to the sociologist, because it was socially approved. Giddings, in illustrating approbational society, gives an account of the observations of a well-educated New England woman in the mines:

"A man was hanged in a very brutal fashion for theft. Crowd drunk and prisoner drunken to last minute. Let another off with a light flogging. At a camp a man was stabbed in the back during a drunken frolic, yet people at the time took no notice of the affair. An Indian was killed by a white man, because the former asked for money due him. The justice of the peace was a mental incompetent elected as a joke."

Paxson reports that "the saloon and the general store, sometimes combined, were the ruling institutions....Few decent people habitually lived in the

towns. In the reactions against loneliness the extremes of drunkenness, debauchery, and murder were only too frequent." Coman states that gambling was the leading passion among miners of the frontier region.

The vigilance committees were effective instruments in restoring order, however unlawful they may have been. They were an assertion of decent public opinion. Wherever they appeared there was an immediate exodus of "bad men." Paxson, quoting from J. Ross Brown, says: "The vigilance committee of San Francisco did more to populate the new territory (Arizona) than the silver mines. Tucson became the headquarters of vice, dissipation, and crime....It was literally a paradise of devils." Hart traces the origin of "Lynch Law" to the frontier, "a term also applied to killings." The one justification of such a system, he says, "is found in the fact that frontier communities have not provided themselves with the machinery of law, and are subject to desperate and organized malefactors. Hence, the practice gained headway in the South and West."

As a fourth point, religious inefficiency was to be expected. According to Paxson,¹⁰ "The habit of church-going, that was established in the middle and northern colonies, found little chance to indulge itself upon the border. There was neither church nor parson; nor funds to maintain them, until after some years of successful farming." Most of the churches threw off fragments, which produced new sects. The frontier offered fertile ground for revivals, characterized by the falling exercise, shouting, twitchings, fainting, catalepsy, trances, the holy laugh, seizures by the power, and other manifestations of hysteria. These were, in the main, reversions to the middle ages and to early Buddhism. Hart states that the period 1830-1850 was an era of revivals in the frontier regions. Evangelists "preached the tortures of damned souls until the people shrieked and dropped fainting in their pews." Turner concluded that "From the responsiveness of the West to religious excitement, it was easy to perceive that here was a region capable of being swayed in large masses by enthusiasm. *These traits of the camp meeting were manifested later in political campaigns.*"

A final question concerns political progress. It is in this field that historians attribute an uncanny sagacity to the frontier. Candidly, it must be confessed that the frontier has generally been wrong on political issues. The "traits of the camp meeting" are not conducive to straight thinking. Especially has frontier intuition failed when confronted with economic issues. Jacksonian democracy dealt the hardest blow American enterprise ever suffered in its financial policy. The Jeffersonian embargo killed all commercial enterprise. Rotation in office, championed by the frontier, ushered in an orgy of financial and political despoilation. The populist movement had its inception in the fallacious doctrine of Karl Marx. Greenbackism, free silver, and non-partisanship have each in turn deluded the frontiersman, ignorant alike of economic principles and racial experience.

The innovations in government with which the frontier is often credited were usually borrowings from the older sections. The initiative and the referendum came from Switzerland. With all the wealth of world experience to draw from, the frontier in founding its institutions imitated blindly. The constitution of the state of New York was adopted in Oregon. California, in the 136 provisions of its first constitution, took 70 from Iowa, 20 from New York, and the remainder about equally from Louisiana, Texas, Mississippi, Wisconsin, and Michigan. The legal system of each new state was either a replica of that of the native state of the delegates and legislators, or a composite and patchwork from many. Wisconsin and Illinois were long past the frontier stage before their citizens set themselves to the task of framing an efficient form of state and local government.

The introduction of the new has grown out of several causes. Heterogeneity of population is one of them. States which have been settled by immigrants from diverse sections have been more inclined to skim the cream of laws and constitution than to adopt any one scheme *in toto*. Discussion over the relative merits of favorite plans is educative. The absence of common planes of custom, habits, standards, and traditions rendered compromise necessary. The compromise might be an invention—something entirely new. But as it has been in the cities where the greatest heterogeneity has appeared, so it has been in the cities where plans of social and political improvement have been most frequently produced.

Abuses are a second cause for the demand for changes. The individualism, the free and easy attitude, the mind-your-own-business of the frontier, have led to political imposition. The new areas have been prolific enough in supplying us with illustrations of popular patience or indolence. When the burden became more than the people could bear, they rose up and smote the transgressors, winding up with devices calculated to prevent or render more difficult similar abuses in the future. Thus for a while the land-looters not only had immunity, but some of them were sent to the United States Senate. A little later the same road led to the penitentiary. Criminal injustice was permitted before an end was put to railroad rate discrimination. We had to go through such disgraceful experiences as the Daly-Clark election contest in Montana before we could get direct election of United States Senators. Boss rule, wild-cat banking, and land thievery have all marked us before we would consider protective measures. Out on the frontier, where there was no tariff on the importation of ills, it is no wonder that ingenious measures were occasionally evolved.

The authority of the sociologist may be brought to bear upon the effect of isolation—a characteristic of the frontier—upon progress. In his *Social Psychology*, Ross states as follows:

"Physical isolation favors the sway of custom. In the valley closets of mountain regions, the old endures long after the plains and seaboard populations have discarded it. The people of the Appalachian regions

resemble their colonial forbears more than any Americans. The country has few contacts with the outside, and is, therefore, conservative. In the back country survive clannishness, patriarchal authority, herb-doctors, hell-fire doctrine, dread of witchcraft, and belief in the flatness of the earth....A lack of culture contacts may permit a society to fall asleep in its tracks."

It is not in such places that one would expect to find "inventiveness, resourcefulness....new activities, new lines of growth, and new institutions."

Proofs of frontier shortcomings may also be found today. Take, for illustration, the mountain regions of Kentucky and Tennessee, and the broad Ozark plateau of Missouri and Arkansas. There is scarcely a section of the country but can supply on a smaller scale a similar type of community. They are the museums in which have been preserved the log cabins, wooden plows, the sickle, shuck mattresses, home-made soap, the muzzle-loading rifle, the language of 1650, and "resentment against government restrictions." In these areas, to use Turner's own words, "is found congenial soil for the duel and the blood feud." In such regions are found poor roads, short school terms, an excessive amount of illiteracy and mental defect, and an abnormally high death rate. Is it here that one would find¹¹ "that powerful, inventive turn of mind, quick to find expedients.... powerful to affect great ends....that dominant individualism....that buoyancy and exuberance which comes with freedom?"

A final argument may be presented. The Turner school seems to believe that the American frontier was unique. They seem to believe that no other people ever had a frontier. Nothing could be farther from the truth. All people have had frontiers—"areas of isolation, sparse population, where the primary processes of occupation were going on." Russia has had a great frontier region for hundreds of years. Yet frontier Russia has differed from metropolitan centers mainly by being more ignorant, more intolerant, and more submissive to autocracy. On the other hand, Paris, far removed from the frontier in time and distance, has long been the stronghold of European democracy and of European culture. The self-governing canons of Switzerland have been occupied for many centuries and are thickly settled. The Mediterranean united its people; the frontier isolated its people. In general, it may be said that frontier conditions deter progress and that they do not accelerate it.

Therefore, it does not appear that the Turner theory is in accord with the facts. More progress has been made in the improvement of human welfare since the industrial revolution than in the ten centuries preceding. Equal suffrage, free tax supported schools, direct legislation, civil service reform, primary nominations, and the recall owe more to labor forces than to the frontier forces. In sections in which there have been the fewest changes from frontier days, the ticket is voted straight, and politi-

cal beliefs are handed down from father to son, along with other rule-of-thumb ways of doing.

The conclusion, therefore, seems inevitable, that while the frontier has been an important factor in American life, it has not been an important agency of progress. Side by side with elements of strength have been elements of weakness. The advances which have been made in particular instances have been made in spite of not because of environment. The elements of strength have been inherent in the people, not a product of frontier experiences, and most certainly not a product of frontier hardships. Moreover, the basic premise that economic efficiency, physical health, mental ability, moral character, and social democracy eventuate from frontier conditions and what they signify, does not square with the facts nor with sound reasoning. From the practical point of view such a theory is as dangerous as *laissez faire*.

¹ Turner, Frederick J., "The Influence of the New Frontier," p. 100.

² *Ibid.*, "Rise of the New West," p. 68.

³ Paxson, Frederic L., "History of the American Frontier," pp. 43-45.

⁴ Lodge, Henry Cabot, "The Distribution of Ability in the United States."

⁵ Gilbert, J. H., "Trade and Currency in Early Oregon," pp. 34, 46, 54.

⁶ Paxson, Frederic L., "History of the American Frontier," pp. 187, 190.

⁷ Turner, "The Frontier in American History," quoted from Peck's "Guide to the New West."

⁸ Paxson, Frederic L., "History of the American Frontier," pp. 114-115.

⁹ See Sweet, William Warren, "The Rise of Methodism in the Far West," pp. 38, 62, etc.

¹⁰ Paxson, Frederic L., "History of the American Frontier," pp. 115-116.

¹¹ Turner, Frederick J., "The Frontier in American History," p. 81.

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History and the Panorama of Life

BY SAMUEL M. LEVIN, COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF DETROIT

WHAT IS THE MEANING OF HISTORY?

A well-known English historian recently spoke the following words: "To weigh the stars or to make ships sail below the sea is not a more astonishing and ennobling performance on the part of the human race in these latter days than to know the course of events that had been long forgotten and the true nature of men and women who were here before us."¹ No professional historian nor lover of history will hesitate to approve this verdict. The case is different with the astronomer and engineer. May they not question the advantage of knowing "the course of events that had been long forgotten and the true nature of men and women who were here before us?" It is well known, for example, that the teacher of history has none too easy a time to convince students or fellow professionals of scientific bias that history is as important as a "live" course in advertising. If the protagonist of history is made uneasy by the jibes of those who gloat over the practical good of practical education, he may well suspect that his critics are not sufficiently posted on the subject, and that at bottom it is a question of meaning. What, then, is the meaning of history?

Man is member of an animal kingdom, but the emphasis of history is on the life of man as member of the social kingdom. History, then, perpetuates the story of man's life; his trials, struggles, and achievements; his generosities and iniquities; his poetic fancies and ideals; his intellectual strivings; his material conquests; his literature and art. We see man through the ages as he has lived and fought and painfully given birth to the elements of an orderly civilization. We see him progressing and retrogressing, subject to every sort of a test and representing at some moment of time, and in one historic guise or another, from the dim past to the present, every conceivable condition of life—priest, warrior, nomad of the desert, feudal lord or villein, monk or wandering friar, explorer of new continents, or free citizen of a modern republic. History, world history, is an unfolding of this life, with its endless variations, its lights and shadows, its grand achievements and tragic failures, its idealisms, sorrows, and disillusionments.

Things minute and things great fall within its scope. Just as the biologist does not ignore the amoeba or paramecium, so the historian does not shun the minutiae of local or special interest. He is content to write a volume on one battle, one sect, one trade union, factory, or machine; one life. And, further, just as the biologist concerns himself with larger organisms—their characteristics, functions, classifications—and phenomena pertaining to a species or genus of animal life, so the historian treats of the larger aspects of history; e. g., a history of the American people, a history of civilization in Eu-

rope, or a history of the British Empire. If the microscopic technique applies to history as it does in the laboratory, so does the interpretative method. Each has its place, though for the layman the specialized work is only of passing interest. Cell life is a part of nature and dare not be ignored by the scientist; yet one may enjoy a beautiful landscape without having to examine each separate leaf to behold the order of its protoplasmic structure, and each particle of inorganic matter to make an inventory of its chemical constituents.

History, then, in its broadest sense comprehends all of life. Naturally it follows that "the analytical study of history....must be actuated by the conscious effort to take cognizance of all the available facts,"² and so history must avail itself, in addition to readable records, of any object or monument created by the hand of man—a pagan temple, a cathedral, a state building, a palace, a mausoleum. Such objects help to bind us with the past and enrich our experience of the past, for they embody something of the thought and aspirations of those who lived before us. They are of primal utility to the historian.

History, in fact, is distinguished as the one subject that aims to present the whole of the past life of man, modified and enriched by his environment, his contacts, the totality of his natural gifts and powers. Neither anthropology, ethnology, nor sociology attains so comprehensive a range. And if, as Professor Cheyney contends, there is a law of historical continuity, that, "All events, conditions, institutions, personalities, come from immediately preceding events, conditions, institutions, and personalities,"³ this intellectual union with the past which history offers is of the very essence of wisdom and creativeness.

In history, moreover, the reader is ever able to get those projections of men and events that move feeling, awaken sympathy, and win the response of personality. If he is interested in the heroic, history places innumerable examples before him; and so, if he is eager for a picture of man in battle, or in the factory, or in Parliament; of kings humbled in the dust, of nations enslaved, of the masses of human beings in the drab affairs of business and society. "History," writes Miss Repplier, "is the heart of all things, and every intellectual by-path leads to this central theme....It is our clue to the problems of the race. It is the gateway through which we glimpse the noble and terrible things which have stirred the human soul."⁴

Just as language makes it possible for men to communicate with other men, so history makes it possible to apprehend, in a measure, at least, something of the meaning of human life. It is not claimed that the historian can explain or rationalize the part

played by countless generations of men in their career on this earth. But history furnishes a key to help him solve these problems. It is an instrument of communication with these unknown elements of existence, thus opening a path to the understanding. Life ceases to be a thing of the moment, the sport of chance forces, but presents itself as a continuous and evolving process.

TURNING THE FACE BACKWARD

Lord Acton once spoke of the student of history as "the politician with his face turned backward." The observation is pregnant with meaning, but why only the politician? Why not the teacher, lawyer, soldier, scientist, citizen, anyone, for that matter, who is deeply interested in the story of man's ordeals, strivings, and progress; who enjoys the fascination of the limitless panorama of human life, and who seeks the fulness of understanding that comes from surveying existence as a whole? But this turning of the face backward carries with it another implication. The present is here, whether it be the fulfillment of the hopes, aspirations, and prophecies of an earlier generation or not. The student of history is in a position to estimate this present, or any historical present, in relation to all antecedent factors, and to contrast actuality with these hopes and forecasts. The writer of fiction creates his own characters and unobstructedly brings whatsoever relations to subsist between one period and another that he desires. The student of history, standing on the rung of the present, gets his sense of relationships by a knowledge of what actually transpired.

It is natural for a people to indulge in prophecy and to sustain themselves with hope. Thus a century ago people were wondering, building hopes, and making forecasts as to what the future would bring forth regarding such troubling issues as the new industrialism, democratic government, social amelioration, and national rights. The student of history can measure wish and prophecy by the certain test of what has been realized and what has failed of realization. Instead of drifting into prophecy, he sits in judgment over earlier generations of prophets. A vista of real life stretches before his mind's eye like a landscape, something elemental that fulfilled itself in a manner that the actual men and women who figured in the drama could not foresee. Like the novelist, the student of history must envisage the reality of the characters and link the events of one moment with the events that followed. He, too, has a story that is brightened with the touch of comedy or that culminates in tragic climax, but his incentive is the feeling that there is underlying it all a substratum of truth.

INTELLECTUAL BACKGROUND AND PERSPECTIVE

History, then, enables us to establish an intellectual and spiritual contact with events of bygone days. History is the only tangible embodiment, the only means we have for an apperceptive realization of the continuity of the stream of life from primordial days to the present. We must resort to history to give meaning to facts of everyday life, otherwise

utterly bewildering to us, e. g., democracy, tariff, League of Nations, Christianity, Republican party, diplomacy, revolution, industrialism, science, military and naval armaments. To think of these things, to solve problems in terms of their larger significance, intelligently and constructively, is obligatory on the members of any democratic society. Every citizen of the United States, every citizen of any European land, finds himself subject to a multitude of social, religious, political, industrial, and intellectual influences. The events of the day fall in one or more of these categories. But merely getting in touch with the ends of things attaches no meaning to them. The citizen can get this meaning only through the knowledge that history holds in store for him. He must resort to this universal memory of mankind, to the genetic interpretation of history to effect an intelligent co-operation between himself and the rest of society and to perform his part with wisdom and good will.

An eminent sociologist has described human society as a work of art, "full of grotesque and wayward traits, but yet of inexhaustible beauty and fascination."⁵ This view applies to any plane of visible society. If it is to apply to old civilizations at all, it can only do so by virtue of the power of the historian to restore the past and present it to us as a living reality. Furthermore, art implies background and perspective. A tree altogether isolated from its natural surroundings and not viewed as a natural unit in a landscape is hardly a fit subject for an artist. History gives intellectualized background and perspective, and by doing this it affects with æsthetic interest, not merely a plane of visible society, but any notable event or institution. The Washington Conference, the American Constitution, modern militarism, or the League of Nations is seen in organic relationship with other events and institutions of the present social order and as the evolutionary fulfillment of a continuous historical process that takes us back to the stone age.

HISTORICAL APPROACH

This fact will help us to understand the implications of historical approach. In the first place, the term implies a tireless effort to get at the true facts of human life; not merely "the true nature of men and women who were here before us," but what these men and women actually did, the institutions they founded, the battles they fought, the governments and religions they brought into existence; their social, economic, and intellectual activities; their home life, their revolutions, their inventions and workmanship. Secondly, historic approach implies evolution in time; that is, the process of change and development from one order of life to another, e. g., from autocracy to democracy, from paganism to monotheism, from mercantilism to laissez faire, from slavery to freedom. It is readily seen that the task of the historian, whether viewed from the angle of the one problem or the other, is an overwhelmingly difficult one.

The layman speaks glibly of facts and truths, but to the student of history the matter is not so simple.

He knows that certain events have happened. He knows, for example, that Louis XIV and Peter the Great lived, that the former built the palace at Versailles; the latter, the now abandoned Russian capital. He knows that they engaged their countries in numerous wars and dealt with miscellaneous problems of church, state, and diplomacy. But what does he know of the true origins of policy? What does he know of the mind of rulers, ministers, and people? Truth depends on things seen and attested to, but also on things unseen, unconfirmed, or even unknown. The historian does, indeed, go a long way to widen the bounds of his knowledge, but no one will affirm in the light of present-day knowledge of the complexities of human behavior, the interrelations of personality with environment, the influence of custom, tradition, and what Teggart has called the idea-system of a people,⁶ that this problem of a final historic truth can be solved.

We occasionally get a reminder of this fact from the scientist who works in a neighboring field. Thus, Professor East, of Harvard, in a recent book on the population problem, expresses himself in these words: "If a coherent analysis of the activities of mankind ever appears, it will be the result of the labors of some argus-eyed savant, who is able to make a composite valuation of the views of those who have surveyed the situation from all its various angles."⁷ On another page of the same work he says: "I feel that if students of political science had a more intimate acquaintance with biological principles and made greater efforts to adjust politico-social practice with them, the change would be productive only of good."⁸ The argument, of course, holds good for history as it does for political science. No psychologist or sociologist today dares to insist that he has reached to the ultimate sources of the behavior of one person, be he child or adult, for he recognizes that he is merely endeavoring to explore in a land of darkness and mystery, not knowing whither the trail is going to lead. He knows that he is making his way in the jungle depths of the subconscious; that he has to do with conflicts and repressions, various disorders of mind and nervous system, and all those influences, social and psychic in character, which flow from group, race, and nation. How much more inscrutable is the complex life of great bodies of men? How much more difficult, moreover, to define the motives of individuals, groups, and nations of a mental content altogether different from our own who had passed from view hundreds of thousands of years ago! Even if the historian were a miraculous being, standing behind the scenes, who in the picturesque words of Macaulay, "always witnessed the arrangement of the pulleys and the manufacture of the thunders," he could not possibly know all these things. How, then, can the historian give the reader "not only the acts, but the feelings, the ideals, the modes of thought and life of a distant past," and how "pierce through the actions and professions of men to their real characters?"⁹

We may go further in pointing out that despite the indefatigable labors of hosts of investigators,

what is known of the life of man on this earth is only a small fraction of what is unknown. Not only is it true that æons of time are utterly shrouded in darkness, unchronicled by written record, but the history of the last two thousand years is so far from finished that students for endless generations ahead of us will continue to grapple with the problem. One cannot plumb the depths of historical research and interpretation even for the last two centuries. A similar task for a score of centuries gives the investigator the same sort of play for his explorative impulses as physics, chemistry, and biology have offered to our laboratory scientists since the days of Lord Kelvin and Pasteur.

THE RELATIVISTIC CHARACTER OF HISTORICAL TRUTHS

The tentative or relativistic character of historical truths, as likewise the infinite range of historical thinking and study, becomes more positively settled when we consider the second aspect of historical approach, the problem of change, development, advance or decline in human fortunes. This means that history, as Lecky puts it, "should be a study of causes and effects, of distant as well as proximate causes, and of the large, slow, and permanent evolution of things."¹⁰ We have seen that even in endeavoring to present an authentic statement of facts, in dealing with objective history, in other words, the historian cannot avoid wandering in the trackless wilderness of motives and relationships. But when he essays to explain causes and effects, the reasons for the innumerable shifts and mutations in life, and their interpenetration of all the rest of life, he cannot possibly detach himself from the compound of attitudes, prepossessions, point of view, and idea-system which constitutes his own personality. Thus, the subjective element of history stalks into view. History, indeed, becomes an adventure in subjectivism as it is in objectivism. No matter how determined the historian is to attack his problem with scientific detachment, even if endowed with all the qualifications that Lecky enumerates—a powerful and original intellect, imagination, insight into character, wide knowledge of the world—even if he guards himself against the "error of judging the actions of the past by the moral standards of the age,"¹¹ it still holds true that the facts of past life stream into his mind, that there they are incorporated with the totality of his reflective and emotional life, and that as they body forth they stand as the new intellectualized product of his individuality; they rise before us in the new raiment unconsciously woven by the very process of creative thinking, which is a part of the synthesis of history, as it is a part of all other forms of mental productivity. This must inevitably be the case, for otherwise we should have bare facts strung together in linear fashion, instead of these facts clothed in the vestments of the writer's own thought, and braced into life by the impact of his own personality. And so it follows that the same event or sequence of events is viewed from as many different angles as there are

writers to reflect over it. Let us imagine, for example, the result of an effort at historical interpretation of Wilson's policy in the late war by Secretary Tumulty, by Roosevelt, and by General Ludendorff; or an interpretation of present industrialism by a successful and unsophisticated employer, a trained economist, a Marxian socialist, or a syndicalist. History is replete with instances of a similar kind.

The personal motif, like a compulsive idea, frequently overshadows all other considerations. It is not surprising, in view of the subtle, tenuous, and undefined nature of historical materials in the realm of motives, feelings, ideals, modes of thought, distant and proximate causes (also in view of the necessary personal character of thinking), that the writer of history should find himself literally manipulating an enchanted instrument with boundless possibilities for reshaping the life of the past after his own pattern and even in his own image. It is not surprising that writers have committed the error that Gooch speaks of. Mr. Gooch tells us that "in his gigantic work on the History of Prussian Foreign Policy, Droysen calls four centuries to witness that the Hohenzollerns alone, from their unswerving fidelity to German interests, as a whole, were fitted to restore the Empire."¹² And of Treitschke he writes: "Treitschke's stage is a battlefield, with the historian looking down and encouraging his friends with loud cries of applause."¹³ The trouble in these cases is purely subjective. The personal attitudes and preferences were so grossly implicated as to give a damaging impress to the whole work.

One may go further and point to the certainty that no human being possesses omniscience, and to the impossibility of establishing ultimate causal relationships. Students of history would find it hard to dispute Professor East's view that a segregation of causes, such as the historian has been wont to make in the past, into political, economic, and social, "is absolutely impossible without a distortion of the finished picture." East writes from the viewpoint of the biologist. Equally potent would be the claim of the anthropologist, ethnologist, and psychologist. But to trace the impact and resultants of these multifarious influences on human life, and to do this with sufficient exactitude to produce a composite valuation, literally presupposes supernatural powers of observation and learning. The task is staggering and no mortal hand can accomplish it. Yet there is no injunction against the historian borrowing the conclusions reached by special workers in these fields. He must perforce do this and be content to allow the work which comes from his own hand to hold its place as a mere tentative summing up.

It is clear from what has been said that historical judgments possess no finality. At best, they must be viewed as relative. In other words, it is clear that the relativity that attaches to the world of matter applies equally well to the world of social life. Just as an object in space is seen differently as the position of the observer changes, so an historical

phenomenon takes on a new guise when viewed by the mind of one investigator or another. Thus it is that irrespective of new evidence, in the form of state papers, memoirs, correspondence, and miscellaneous records, the American Revolution is a subject of perennial interest. There is always something new and distinctive in the picture as drawn by a different hand, that of Fiske, Trevelyan, Channing, Schlesinger, Van Tyne, or Mellwain. The fact of the matter is that this very relativity is the basis of the rich potentialities of history for human life and its lasting interest to society. History is no more limited in its variations nor in its power to delineate motive, character, growth, conflict, decay, and death than the very complexities of human existence which give rise to these phenomena. The impulse of the historian to observe, study, describe, and interpret can no more come to an end than the impulse of people to live. The yearning to evaluate life anew, even of one people, must parallel the flow of life itself.

TECHNIQUE OF SCIENTIFIC METHOD

All this, of course, is not inconsistent with the effort to make history a science, for the science of history signifies nothing more than the application of the most critical methods in learning and authenticating facts. Since the days of Macaulay history has moved forward with giant strides to the formulation of a technique of scientific method. Said Macaulay, "And we are not certain that the best histories are not those of which a little of the exaggeration of the fictitious narrative is judiciously employed."¹⁴ The great Englishman was not guilty of self-delusion; he was merely setting down his doubts as to the success of the writer of a more exact history to convey more exact notions to the reader. But certainly scientific history is to be welcomed, as improved methods of chemical or biological research are to be welcomed. Such historical methods lead to ever greater success, though never to perfect success, in the endeavor to give the world a true portrayal of the events of bygone days.

THE FRUIT OF HISTORICAL STUDY

An appreciation of historical approach is thus found to be the choicest fruit of historical study. It lays its emphasis on truth and on truth only, but it compels recognition of the only way given to mankind to get at the truth, and that is endless observation, study, and analysis of all the facts of human existence and the free interplay of all these facts for purposes of exposition. It brings to mind the impossibility of knowing the present without knowing the past. It concerns itself with all the fluctuations in human fortune, as they have eventuated in time, and seeks to explain them as a part of the continuous world historic process. It further brings to mind the relativistic nature of human institutions, opinions, standards, and truths, yet never relaxing in its search to add some iota of fact to the store of what is known, thus offering a foundation for current opinions, standards, and truths.

It is evident that the historian is engaged in the same sort of work as the chemist or biologist. The

chemist tries to analyze and explain matter; the biologist—the mystery of life from simple organisms to complex; the historian—man as a social being and in his social relations. All deal with problems of existence, with the known and unknown. It is true, of course, that history has its practical uses, e. g., a better understanding of the life of the present, a genetic approach to problems of the day, a help to literature, a regard for the truth. But such utilitarian applications will not explain the incentive that moves the student of history to tireless effort. An English scientist has well said, "Fundamentally, everything rests on the pure attempt to gain knowledge without any idea of the use to which it may subsequently be put. Without pure science there is no applied science at all."¹⁰ This pertains to history as it does to the work of Jean Fabre or Madame and Monsieur Curie. Every citizen, legislator, jurist, and statesman must turn to history to help him to understand his environment, to associate himself with its spirit, and to develop his own inherent social capacities in line with the best interests of society, as an architect, engineer, medical expert, or factory manager must turn to the sciences for the body of fact that underlies technological practice or industrial art. But the motive of the true historian, as of the true scientist, is to widen the domain of knowledge. Ever con-

fronted by the challenge of human life, baffling and mysterious, he is in quest for new facts and new understanding, like an adventurer in search for hidden treasures. His task is to open new trails through the unknown; his joy is to explore, and his hope to apprehend the truth.

¹ G. M. Trevelyan, lecture delivered at Newnham College, Cambridge, in 1921. See *Living Age*, June 3, 1922, p. 573.

² F. J. Teggart, *The Processes of History*, p. 37.

³ Cheyney, *American Historical Review*, Vol. 29, p. 237.

⁴ Agnes Repplier, *Atlantic Monthly*, April, 1922, p. 489.

⁵ Cooley, *Social Organization*, p. 21.

⁶ See Teggart, *The Processes of History*, page 137.

A writer on Japan in a recent article makes this comment: "The foreigner is constantly bumping up against what is called the 'Japanese way of thinking.' That is final, for no one considers, even theoretically, the possibility of changing that way of thinking." *Living Age*, November 15, 1924, p. 363.

⁷ East, *Mankind at the Crossroads*, p. 4.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 340.

⁹ Lecky, *Historical and Political Essays*, p. 4.

¹⁰ Lecky, *Historical and Political Essays*, p. 4.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

¹² Gooch, *Historical Research in Recent Developments of European Thought*, edited by Marvin, p. 159.

¹³ *Ibid.*, p. 160.

¹⁴ Macaulay in *Essay on Machiavelli*.

¹⁵ W. H. Bragg in *Recent Developments of European Thought*, p. 217.

Legislation Relating to Teaching the Constitution

Report of the Committee on Instruction of the American Political Science Association

The Columbus meeting of the American Political Science Association (December, 1923) authorized the appointment of a committee of five to study and report upon legislation recently enacted in the several states requiring that, under one name or another, the Constitution of the United States or American government and ideals be taught in all the public schools of the state. As such committee, President Garner appointed Mr. Roscoe L. Ashley, Pasadena, California; Professor F. E. Horack, University of Iowa; Principal T. J. McCormack, La Salle, Illinois; Professor W. B. Munro, Harvard University, and Professor P. Orman Ray, Northwestern University. The committee respectfully submits the following report:

I. INTRODUCTORY

The discovery during the World War that many American citizens, both naturalized and native-born, were not devotedly loyal to the United States, or had little comprehension of the principles of American government, soon became a matter of public concern. Subsequently, the National Security League, the American Legion, and the American Bar Association became interested in the matter, and chiefly as a result of their activity, it would seem, all but two of the states (Kansas and Missouri) now have

laws requiring educational authorities to provide instruction in courses intended to inculcate a spirit of patriotism, impart some understanding of the Constitution and government of the United States, and to drive home to the hearts and consciences of our younger citizens the duties and obligations of citizenship.

Some of these laws were enacted prior to the World War, but the great majority have been adopted since the Armistice. The main credit for these enactments in at least twenty-eight states is claimed by the National Security League's Committee on Constitutional Instruction.¹ That committee has been assisted to some extent by the American Bar Association, by the Veterans of Foreign Wars in various states, but chiefly by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, which appointed its agents in each state to organize groups of citizens who would press the desirability of enacting such laws upon the attention of their respective state legislatures. Two draft bills were prepared by this Committee on Constitutional Instruction, and one or the other has been the basis of legislation in more than half the states.

All forty-six laws, however, bear a close resemblance to one another; at least, in their general aspects, especially in the description or designation

of the subjects to be taught. They all apply to the public schools, and in about twenty instances private schools are also expressly included. There is no uniformity as to the grades in which the required subjects must be taught, most laws laying down no definite rule on this point. Some specify the "lowest primary grades," as in the Arkansas law; others, from the first to the eighth grades, as in California; while in eleven states the requirements extend to the state colleges and universities.²

2. A SUMMARY OF THE LEGAL PROVISIONS

In most states the laws are mandatory only in the sense that the designated subjects must be *taught*; they generally fail, however, to require that pupils or students shall take them. As a result, such courses are usually made elective and are taken by comparatively few. On the other hand, the laws of California, Ohio, and Tennessee are really mandatory: they require all pupils to pass satisfactory examinations in the prescribed subjects. A few states³ go further and require all persons applying for teacher's or superintendent's certificates to pass a similar examination. The laws of these states make the wilful neglect of such requirements by school authorities a sufficient cause for their dismissal or removal.

In many states the laws go into considerable detail as to the character and content of the courses required. California, for example, stipulates that the reasons for the adoption of each of the provisions of the Constitution of the United States be taught. Illinois requires instruction in American patriotism and the principles of representative government, as enunciated in the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, and the Constitution of Illinois. In Iowa, teaching of the following courses is required in four different sections of the Code: (1) the principles of American Government, (2) American citizenship, (3) the Constitution of the United States and the Constitution of Iowa, and (4) civics of state and nation. The North Carolina law requires a course in Americanism to be given, which must include (1) respect for law and order, (2) character and ideals of the founders of our country, (3) duties of good citizenship, (4) respect for the national anthem and flag, (5) the Constitution of North Carolina, and (6) the Constitution of the United States. The foregoing illustrations may be regarded as fair samples of the specifications appearing in these statutes generally.

With respect to the amount of time to be set apart for instruction along the lines indicated above, only about one-third of the states lay down definite prescriptions. These vary greatly and are often expressed in the loosest fashion, as in the Texas law requiring at least "ten minutes a day," without indicating for how long a period the instruction shall continue; and the South Dakota law, which specifies one hour each week "in the aggregate." The maximum period—"two years"—is found in Arizona. One "year" is required in Iowa, Nevada, Ohio, Oklahoma, and South Carolina. Other states merely declare

that these courses shall be "regular" courses or shall be "required for graduation."

Similarly, the question, who shall determine the content of these required courses, is not always definitely answered in the laws themselves. In such cases the inference seems to be that the whole matter is left to the local school authorities. Only about half of the states expressly authorize the state superintendent of public instruction or the state board of education to determine both the extent to which these subjects shall be taught and the content of the courses.

3. THE PURPOSE OF THIS LEGISLATION

However much these laws may vary in details, the purpose running through them all is apparently very much the same. In a dozen instances it is clearly stated to be love of country, devotion to the principles of American government, a true comprehension of the rights, duties, and dignity of American citizenship. The Maine law says that teachers must lead pupils to an adequate understanding of how to preserve a republican constitution; and Texas insists that pupils be taught how to preserve the democratic government of state and nation.

With these broad purposes no one can be in more sympathetic accord than members of the American Political Science Association. Concerning the wisdom or expediency of attempting to attain these objectives through mandatory statutes, however, there may well be some difference of opinion. There is perhaps less difference respecting the justice of these legislative commands, for they may be regarded as a merited retribution, which many school authorities have brought down upon their own heads (1) for failing to give due recognition in the public school curriculum to the fundamental importance of instruction in the basic principles and institutions of American government, while finding places for all sorts of educational fads; and (2) for permitting the vitality and effectiveness of courses in Civics, which have long been taught in the schools, to become seriously impaired by a sort of pernicious anemia. From many of these courses the study of the Constitution and American government has gradually disappeared; textbooks are used in which no copy of the Constitution is printed, almost no reference made to it, and hardly a word about American government in any of its phases. The laws now under consideration are, in part, at least, a protest against this sort of "Civics." At all events, the legislation is here and is likely to remain on the statute books indefinitely; so that further discussion of its justice, wisdom, or expediency in this report would be of merely academic interest.

4. A SUGGESTED "MODEL" LAW

It is of far more importance, in the opinion of the committee, (1) to consider ways and means of perfecting, at least, improving, some of these laws; (2) to ascertain what is actually being done throughout the country in compliance with the legislative mandate; and (3) to offer suggestions that may aid teachers and other educational authorities in meeting both

the spirit and the letter of the legal requirements.

It is apparent that this legislation has been drafted and enacted without much, if any, consultation or co-operation with the educational authorities of the several states. This perhaps accounts for much of the looseness or lack of uniformity and definiteness already noted. Although opposing rigid standardization, the committee urges the importance of a comprehensive study and comparison of these laws by state educational authorities, with a view to formulating amendments which will result in the adoption of a more nearly uniform standard and thus tend to insure more uniform results. With this in mind, the committee ventures to submit herewith the draft of a "model" law for the consideration and possible assistance of those directly concerned in this legislation. Examination of this draft bill will make it clear that the committee favors a genuinely mandatory law; that is, one which requires all pupils to take the specified work, and which also requires the passing of a satisfactory examination in the prescribed subjects, as a prerequisite to the granting of teachers' certificates.

5. TO WHAT EXTENT ARE THE EXISTING REQUIREMENTS BEING MET?

With respect to what is actually being accomplished by school authorities in compliance with these laws, and to what extent, if at all, they are being ignored, or complied with in only a perfunctory manner, the committee bases its conclusions upon information derived from personal observations and inquiries of its members, from correspondence with the committee on constitutional instruction of the National Security League, and from correspondence with the state superintendents of public instruction or boards of education in forty states and four territories.⁴

It appears that, in substance, at least, the instruction required by recent legislation was being given regularly in the better high schools and in many colleges and universities before the enactment of these mandatory laws; and, of course, it has continued to be given since their enactment. So far as the Constitution is concerned, the state educational authorities are almost unanimous in reporting that the Constitution is being taught. Upon closer examination of what is being done, however, it appears that in many instances the schools are teaching American history and not the Constitution or the fundamental principles of American government. No one will deny that the study of history offers many opportunities to impress lessons of patriotism and good citizenship, but the same may be said of literature, ethics, and religion. Such an arrangement, in the judgment of the committee, fails to meet the spirit, and, in many instances, even the letter of the law. The committee is of the opinion that the Constitution, as the foundation of American political institutions, is not being given the place it deserves in the curriculum of the public schools in most states; and, in view of the unfriendly and unsympathetic attitude of many state and local educational authori-

ties, additional legislation will probably be necessary to make these laws really effective. The committee strongly insists that the study of the Constitution, or of American government (by whatever name the course may be called), should be taught as a subject separate and distinct from history or any other subject.

Where no effort, serious or otherwise, is apparently being made to comply with the law (as is reported to be the situation in some large cities) it is not always due to sheer indifference on the part of school authorities; frequently it results from the shortage of teachers interested in, and properly qualified to teach, the required subjects. In such instances, and probably the same is true quite generally, the schools have had suddenly imposed on them tasks for which they were ill-prepared and which they will be unable properly to perform for several years. In this respect the legislation seems premature, and the results are what might have been foreseen from the absence of co-operation between school authorities and lawmakers when these laws were pending in the various legislatures.

6. THE RESULTS: ARE THEY ADEQUATE?

In brief, the results thus far, if not distinctly disappointing, are certainly far from being what we may reasonably expect when sufficient time has elapsed for the necessary adjustments. At all events, this committee is not prepared to condemn the legislative requirements merely on the showing made thus far. Indeed, there is no doubt in the minds of the committee that some of the motives back of this legislation are commendable, and that it has done much to stimulate interest in the study of the fundamental features of our governmental system, especially the national Constitution. Toward the popularization of the study of that document and its historical backgrounds a good deal that is worth while seems already to have been accomplished. But before such instruction can be made really effective, especially with pupils in the lower grades, better and more varied methods of teaching than are now in common use will have to be worked out. It is not surprising that instructors find it difficult to interest pupils in the textual study of the Constitution. Doubtless the interest of the younger pupils, at least, would be stimulated if a dozen or fifteen stirring stories—not essays, not opinions of the Constitution—were available, illustrating the significance of its more important clauses in the life of the ordinary individual. A little manual of that sort would be of great assistance to many teachers, "not as a textbook, but as a suggestion as to how human the document is." For older pupils, we should have an especially careful study of the Constitution as a living document, growing and expanding with the development of our national life. With the hope that it may be of some assistance to teachers who are wrestling with the problem of how to interest pupils of the elementary and secondary schools, the committee has prepared for this report a list of manuals which deal with the Constitution, the organization of the government,

and with the principles underlying both the Constitution and the government. (Not printed herewith.—EDITOR.)

7. SOME GENERAL PROBLEMS CONNECTED WITH THIS SUBJECT

Several other problems are also raised by the legislation now under consideration: (1) What minimum of time ought to be given to the study of the Constitution when it is studied? (2) What method of studying it can best be pursued, e. g., how much historical preliminary and how much clause-by-clause analysis? (3) How can this study be linked up with the study of current events and present-day problems? (How much study can be made of principles of the Constitution, of cases applying it, and of problems encountered in its application?) These are all questions to be answered primarily by the educational authorities of the elementary and secondary schools, and are not ones which this committee feels qualified to answer. The committee therefore suggests that they be taken up by some other competent body, such as the National Educational Association or the American Council on Education.

Respectfully submitted,
E. L. ASHLEY,
F. E. HORACK,
T. J. McCORMACK,
W. B. MUNRO,
P. O. RAY (Chairman).

December, 1924.

APPENDIX

A MODEL ACT FOR THE TEACHING OF CITIZENSHIP AND THE CONSTITUTION

File No.....(Date).....
By Mr.....(or Committee on Public Schools)

A BILL FOR

An Act to require the teaching of citizenship, patriotism, and the fundamental principles of the American Constitutional system in the schools, colleges, and universities of the State of.....

Be it Enacted by the General Assembly (or Senate) of the State of.....:

SECTION 1. *Purpose.* In order to promote a spirit of patriotic and civic service, to perpetuate the principles and ideals of American Government, and to cultivate in the youth of this state moral and intellectual qualities, which are essential to meet the obligations of citizenship, the study of American Government is hereby declared to be indispensable to good citizenship and shall be taught in all of the schools of this state as hereinafter provided.

SECTION 2. *Grades below eighth.* In addition to the course of study as now provided for, it shall be the duty of the board of directors of each school district to provide instruction in citizenship and patriotism in all grades below the eighth grade, and all pupils attending such schools over eight years of age shall be required to take such instruction.

SECTION 3. The instruction in citizenship and patriotism provided for in Section 2 of this act shall include:

1. Respect for law and order;

2. The character and ideals of the founders of our country;

3. Respect for the national flag;

4. The duties of good citizenship; and such other subjects related to the above as the superintendent of public instruction may require.

SECTION 4. In all grades below the fifth, the instruction provided for in Section 2 of this act shall be given in connection with special events or anniversaries. In grades six and seven, systematic instruction in citizenship shall be given one full school period a week, or the equivalent, throughout the school year.

SECTION 5. *Eighth grade.* Beginning with the eighth grade there shall be given regular but elementary instruction in the principles of the government of the United States and of the State of....., as outlined by the state superintendent of public instruction. Two hours, or two full school periods, a week throughout the year, or the equivalent, shall be given to this work; and all pupils in such grades shall be required to take such instruction.

SECTION 6. After September 1, 192.., no pupil shall be admitted without condition to any high school or normal school whose credentials do not show that the provisions of Section 5 have been complied with.

SECTION 7. *High Schools and Colleges.* In all the public and private high schools, and in all the colleges and universities that are in any manner supported by public funds, commencing with the school year next ensuing of the passage of this act, there shall be given regular courses of instruction in the fundamental principles of popular and representative government as enunciated in the Constitution of the United States and in the Constitution of the State of.....

SECTION 8. Such instruction shall be presented as thoroughly and in the same manner as other like required subjects; but in all high schools, colleges, and universities such instruction shall not be less than three full school periods, or academic hours, per week throughout an entire school or college year, or not less than five full school periods, or academic hours, throughout one-half of a school or college year.

SECTION 9. No student in the public high schools of this state or those enrolled in the collegiate courses in the higher educational institutions, supported in whole or in part by public taxation, shall receive a certificate of graduation without previously passing a satisfactory examination upon the fundamental principles of the American constitutional system, as defined in Section 7 hereof.

SECTION 10. *Teachers.* One year after the passage of this act no person shall be granted a regular certificate to teach in the public schools of this state, or have any regular certificate renewed until, in addition to requirements heretofore existing, he shall have passed a satisfactory examination upon the provisions and principles of the American constitutional system, or shall have completed such a course as is provided in Section 8 of this act, in a teachers' training school, college, or university in this state, or in

any state having like requirements; provided, however, that certificates issued for one year only and not subject to renewal may be issued without complying with this provision.

SECTION 11. *County Superintendent.* It shall be the duty of the county superintendent to see that all persons licensed to teach in his county are so qualified, and he may enjoin any teacher from continuing to teach until so qualified.

SECTION 12. *Administration of Act.* It shall be the duty of the state superintendent of public instruction and those having charge of any other schools or institutions, maintained in whole or in part by public taxation, to make all necessary arrangements for the carrying out of the provisions of this act as regards schools under their control or administration.

SECTION 13. The superintendent of public instruction shall be responsible for the enforcement of this act and shall cause to be inspected and super-

vise the instruction to be given in such subjects; and he may, in his discretion, cause all or a portion of the state aid, to be apportioned to a district, to be withheld for failure of the school authorities of such district to provide instruction, as herein prescribed, or for a non-compliance with the rules of the state superintendent adopted as herein provided.

¹This committee consists of nearly 130 members, including fourteen state superintendents of public instruction and over ninety college or university presidents.

²California, Delaware, Idaho, Illinois, Minnesota, Nevada, New Jersey, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, and Utah.

³Arkansas, California, Florida, Nevada, Ohio, South Carolina, and Tennessee.

⁴This correspondence resulted from a questionnaire sent out in August, 1924, by Mr. Garland W. Powell, Americanization Director of the American Legion, concerning the status of the teaching of the Constitution in the schools of the several states. A digest of the replies received has been used in preparing this report.

A Selected Bibliography of Works Helpful in Teaching the Constitution of the United States

COMPILED BY REGINALD STEVENS KIMBALL, A. M., HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WORCESTER, MASSACHUSETTS

COMPILER'S NOTE: No attempt has been made in compiling this list to include all books in print. Preference has been given to those most frequently referred to in the common civics texts, and to those which are most easily accessible. The compiler will appreciate having called to his attention other books which teachers have found to be serviceable.

Subjoined are lists, as follows:

A—For Teachers' Reference.

B—Source Material.

C—Popular Treatments.

D—1. Advanced Texts.

2. Secondary Texts.

3. Elementary Texts.

E—For Pupils' Reference.

F—Constitutional Law.

FOR TEACHERS' REFERENCE

Adams, James Truslow: *The power of ideals in American history.* Yale University Press: 1913.
(Especially good in giving the teacher a working background.)

Bacon, Charles William, assisted by Franklyn S. Morse: *The American plan of government: the constitution of the United States as interpreted by accepted authorities.* Putnams: 1916. pp. xxi, 474. \$2.50.

Bancroft, George: *History of the formation of the constitution of the United States.* 2 vol. (various editions). (A standard work, exhaustive and helpful.)

Bartlett, William H.: *Handbook of American government.* Crowell: 1912, 1920. pp. ix, 162.
(A book which has served its purpose well, newly edited by Henry Campbell Black.)

Beard, Charles Austin: *An economic interpretation of the constitution of the United States.* Macmillan: 1913. pp. vii, 330. \$2.25.

Beck, James M.: *The constitution of the United States—yesterday, today, and tomorrow.* Doran: 1924. pp. xvi, 352. Cloth, \$3.00, \$2.50; paper, \$1.00.

(By the solicitor-general of the United States, perhaps as authoritative as possible. The most readable of the newer books.)

Beck, James M., and others: *Our charter of liberty: what it means to every American.* National Security League: 1919.

(A pamphlet which gives the personal touch.)

Benson, Allen L.: *Our dishonest constitution.* Huebsch. \$1.00, 50c.

(The "other" side of the question.)

Berry, Margaret K., and Howe, Samuel B.: *Actual democracy: the problems of America.* Prentice-Hall: 1923. pp. x, 317. \$1.50.

(Showing some direct and indirect applications of the principles included in our constitution.)

Beveridge, Albert J.: *The state of the nation.* Bobbs-Merrill: 1924. pp. 276. \$3.00.

(An analysis of the present-day situation.)

Bigelow, M. M.: chapter on "The constitution," in *Cambridge Modern History*, vol. VII. pp. 235-304.

Black, Henry Campbell: See—Bartlett, William H.

Boston League of Women Voters: *Manual for Massachusetts voters.* Boston: 1923. pp. 90. 25c.

(Contains helpful analyses and diagrams.)

Bryce, James: *The American commonwealth.* Many editions.

(For years the outstanding book on American government.)

Bryce, James: *Modern democracies.* 2 vol. Macmillan: 1921. \$10.50. pp. xiv, 508; vi, 676.

(Valuable for its comparisons.)

Burdick, Charles K.: *The law of the American constitution.* Putnams. \$6.00.

(A technical consideration.)

Burgess, John William: *Recent changes in American constitutional theory.* Columbia Univ. Press: 1923. pp. xi, 115. \$1.75.

- Carroll, Charles: Outline of government in Rhode Island for use in the schools. R. I. Public Education Service: 1924. pp. 38.
- Carroll, Charles: Constitution of the state of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations as amended, with a condensed outline of the constitution and history of the constitution. R. I. Public Education Service: 1924. pp. 32.
(The best of the state pamphlets so far issued.)
- Chronicles of America—See Advanced Texts.
- Connecticut Board of Education: A course of study in the social studies. Hartford: 1924. pp. 85.
(Organization of material.)
- Constitutional Review. 717 Colorado Building, Washington, D. C.
(Helpful articles—a means of keeping up with the trend.)
- Corwin, Edward Samuel: The constitution and what it means today. Princeton Univ. Press: 1920. pp. xiii. 114.
(Suggestions for the general public which are none the less helpful to teachers.)
- Dalton, Zetta: Dramatizations of the declaration of independence and the constitutional convention. The author, Malden, M.D.: 1924. 25c.
(The sort of thing which teachers welcome.)
- Dalton, Zetta: The signing of the declaration of independence.
(A companion piece, which helps to form the background.)
- Elliott, Edward: American government and majority rule: a study in American political development. Princeton Univ. Press: 1916. pp. vii, 175. \$1.25.
(Throws some interesting sidelights on actual practices.)
- Elliott, Edward Graham: Biographical story of the constitution—a study of the growth of the American union. Putnams: 1910. pp. xi, 400. \$2.00.
(Making vivid through the introduction of the responsible personages the development of our constitution.)
- Farrand, Max: Fathers of the constitution: a chronicle of the establishment of the union. Yale Univ. Press: 1921. pp. xii, 246. \$3.00, \$5.00.
(A volume of the Chronicles of America, but obtainable separately.)
- Farrand, Max: The framing of the constitution of the United States. Yale Univ. Press: 1923.
(A more scholarly work.)
- Farrand, Max: The development of the United States from colonies to a world power. Houghton Mifflin: 1918. pp. x, 335. \$1.50.
- Finley, John H., and Sanderson, J. F.: The American executive and executive methods. N. Y.: 1908. pp. 333. In the American State Series.
- Fisher, S. G.: Evolution of the constitution of the United States, a development of progressive history. Philadelphia: 1897. pp. 398.
(Occasionally to be found. The point of view is that for which the teacher of today longs.)
- Fiske, John: The critical period of American history, 1783-1789. Houghton Mifflin: 1888. pp. xviii, 378.
(Chapters v, vi, and vii treat of the framing and ratification of the document. A list of the members of the convention is given.)
- Flanders, H.: An exposition of the constitution of the United States. Philadelphia: 1895. pp. 295.
(The old-style treatment, but with some good illustrative material.)
- Ford, Henry Jones: Rise and Growth of American Politics. Frothingham, Richard: The rise of the republic of the United States.
(A book which has passed through many editions.)
- Goodnow, Frank Johnson: Social reform and the constitution. Macmillan: 1911. pp. xxi, 365. \$1.50.
(Considers the constitution as a vehicle of effecting desirable changes.)
- Guitteau, William Bakus: Our United States. Silver Burdett: 1919. Book I, chapters xvi, xvii.
- Hamilton (Mrs.), F. M.: The federal convention. The author: 455 Park Avenue, Leonia, N. J.
(A pamphlet with some new materials.)
- Hart, Albert Bushnell: Actual government as applied under American conditions. Longmans, Green.
(Analysis as of recent years.)
- Hill, David Jayne: The people's government. Appleton: 1915. pp. xiv, 286. \$1.25.
- Hill, John P.: The federal executive. Houghton Mifflin: 1916. pp. viii, 269. \$2.00.
(A treatment of the executive branch of government.)
- Hill, Mabel: the teaching of civics. Houghton Mifflin: 1914. pp. ix, 145. 60c. In Riverside Educational Monographs.
(Helps for teaching and guidance outlines.)
- Hill, M. E.: Patriotic writings for American students. Wagner Publishing Co., San Francisco: 1924.
- Horne, Alice Merrill: Columbus. The author. Deseret News Press, Salt Lake City, Utah.
(In the nature of prophecy.)
- Idaho State Board of Education. Teaching the constitution of the United States to the sixth grade. Bulletin IX, 8 May, 1923. pp. 8.
(Designed to help teachers fulfill the law of the state.)
- Leighton, Etta V.: Making Americans. Owen: 1920.
(Contains two extracts dealing with the constitution.)
- Magruder, Frank Abbott: John Marshall. Houghton Mifflin: 1898.
(A volume of the American Statesmen Series, which deals with the life of the man who set our constitution on its present pinnacle.)
- Massachusetts—See Boston League of women voters.
- Massachusetts Department of Education: A suggested plan for the study of the constitution of the United States in elementary and junior and senior high schools. Bulletin, 1924, No. 4. pp. 12.
(A pamphlet furnished to all the schools for use in furtherance of the law requiring the teaching of the constitution.)
- McCall, Samuel W.: The business of congress.
- McLaughlin, Andrew C.: The confederation and the constitution. Harpers: 1907. In The American Nation: A History.
(As fascinating an account of the period as has yet appeared.)
- Mentor (magazine), Vol. II. No. xxiii treats of our form of government.
- Michigan Department of Public Instruction: Training for citizenship. (Course of study for elementary schools.) Bulletin 33 (1923). pp. 109.
(Contains an outline of the constitution and a dramatization of the constitutional convention.)
- National Security League: Catechism of the constitution. New York City. Pamphlet.
(Questions and answers to throw light on our conceptions of the document.)
- Neuman, Harry: Sec—United States Bureau of Education.
- Nevins, Allen: The American States during and after the revolution, 1775-1789. Macmillan. \$4.00.
(The historical background.)
- New Hampshire Department of Public Instruction: United States constitutional history: an outline with bibliography. Bulletin, 1918-19, No. 91.
(For the benefit of those engaged in teaching in the state.)
- New York, University of the State of: Syllabus for elementary schools—civics and patriotism. Bulletin 794, 1920. pp. 91.
- New York, University of the State of: Syllabus in civics. Bulletin 788, 1923 (Revision of No. 739). pp. 38.
- New York, University of the State of: A syllabus in government. Bulletin 635, 1918.
- New York, University of the State of: Syllabus in history. Bulletin 763, 1924. pp. 229.
(Pamphlets which cover the requirements of most state laws, though they were issued in advance of the recent flood of legislation.)

- Norton, Thomas James: The constitution of the United States, its sources and applications. Little Brown. \$2.00.
(A desirable acquaintance.)
- Old South Leaflets. Directors of Old South Work. Published at 5c. per single copy, or bound in volumes. The following are pertinent:
I. 1. The constitution (text).
2. Articles of confederation (text).
3. Declaration of independence (text).
III. 70. Debate on suffrage.
IV. 99. Washington's letters.
- Oregon Superintendent of Public Instruction: Program for constitution week. Suggestions for the teaching of the constitution of the United States. 1924.
(One of the state bulletins.)
- Page, William Tyler: The American's creed. Many reprints.
(Used as frontispiece to Gettell, q.v.)
- Page, William Herbert (ed.): The constitution of the United States and of the State of Ohio, thoroughly annotated and indexed. W. H. Anderson Co.: 1913. pp. iii, 328. \$1.00.
(A complete treatment.)
- Pierson, Charles W.: Our changing constitution. Doubleday: 1922. pp. xiii, 181. \$1.50.
(Helpful in keeping up with the times.)
- Plass, A. A.: Civics for Americans in the making. Boston: 1912. pp. 187.
(One of the Americanization texts that has helpful material.)
- Reinsch, Paul Samuel: Readings on the American federal government. Ginn: 1918.
(Gives a real insight into our form of government.)
- Rhode Island: See—Carroll, Charles.
- Robson, Ethel Hedley: Dramatic episodes in congress and parliament: a parliamentary reader. Atlantic Monthly Press: 1923. pp. xii, 272.
(The constitutional convention is dramatized, on the whole accurately. The appendix gives rules for parliamentary procedure. With classes where the time permits, this scheme would serve to make the work much more interesting.)
- Root, Elihu: Essentials of the constitution: in North American Review, July and August, 1913.
- Root, Elihu: Experiments in government and the essentials of the constitution. Princeton Univ. Press: 1913. pp. iv, 83. \$1.00.
(Written by one well qualified to handle the subject.)
- Rupert, W. W.: Guide to the study of the history and constitution of the United States. Boston: 1888. pp. 130.
(Interesting as one of the early books in the field.)
- Russell, William Fletcher: See—Wade.
- Schuyler, Robert Livingston: The constitution of the United States: an historical survey of its formation. Macmillan: 1923. pp. vii, 211. \$1.50.
(The sort of treatise which leads to a better understanding.)
- Smith, Henry Arthur: Federalism in North America: a comparative study of institutions in the United States and Canada. Chipman: 1923. pp. v, 328.
(More advanced than the ordinary grade teacher will care to consider, but interesting as a cultural background to a complete understanding.)
- Southworth, A. T.: Suggested answers to the questions in the common sense of the constitution of the United States. Allyn & Bacon: 1924. pp. ii, 30.
(A teachers' aid to accompany the textbook by the same author.)
- Straus, Oscar S.: The origin of the republican form of government in the United States. Putnams. \$1.25.
(An endeavor to reach the roots.)
- Studebaker, John W.: Our country's call to service: a manual of patriotic activities through schools. Scott, Foresman: 1918. pp. 223. 16c.
(One of the "war pamphlets" which has not lost all its value.)
- Studebaker, John W.: Our country's call to service through public and private schools—work—save—give. Scott, Foresman: 1918. pp. 128. 12c.
(Another which is only slightly less valuable.)
- Taft, William Howard: Our chief magistrate and his powers. Columbia Univ. Press: 1916. pp. vii, 165. \$1.50.
- Taft, William Howard: The presidency: its duties, its powers, its opportunities, and its limitations. Scribners: 1916. pp. v, 145. \$1.00.
(Two volumes dealing with the executive department of government from somewhat different angles.)
- Taylor, Hannis: The origin and growth of the American constitution. Houghton Mifflin: 1911. pp. xlii, 676. \$4.00.
- Thorpe, Francis Newton: The constitution of the United States of America, with index and bibliography. Hinds: 1916. pp. 127. 17c.
(A valuable reference edition.)
- Thorpe, Francis Newton: Essentials of American constitutional law. Putnams: 1917. pp. xii, 279. \$1.75.
(A helpful exposition.)
- Thorpe, Francis Newton: Essentials of American government. Putnams: 1922. pp. 190. \$1.75.
(An inquiry into our system of administration.)
- United States Bureau of Education: Bulletin 32, 1918—Teaching American ideals through literature, by Harry Neumann.
(Suggestions which will aid the teacher in enlivening the work somewhat.)
- Vandenburg, Arthur Hendrick: If Hamilton were here today: American fundamentals applied to modern problems. Putnams: 1923. pp. xxxv, 366. \$2.50.
(By an author who has given much attention to the life of Hamilton, especially in connection with his governmental exploits.)
- Wade, Martin Joseph, and Russell, William Fletcher: The short constitution. American Publicity Com.: 1920. pp. 230. \$1.35.
(Suggestions for "boiling down" and at the same time making clearer our fundamental law.)
- Washington (State) Department of Education: Training for citizenship. Bulletin II, 9. February, 1924. pp. 28.
(An outline for teachers.)
- Washington (State) Department of Education: Constitution anniversary. Bulletin III, 13. September, 1924. pp. 16.
(Teaching aids for the celebration of an important anniversary.)
- West, H. L.: Federal power: its growth and necessity. Doran: 1918. pp. ix, 216. \$1.50.
(A consideration of the events leading up to the adoption of the constitution and of its subsequent growth in importance.)
- West Virginia: The constitution of the United States and the state constitution of West Virginia with the declaration of independence. 1923.
- West Virginia State Board of Education and State Department of Education: Teaching patriotism and citizenship in the schools. 1923-24. pp. 40.
(Contains some quotations that would be helpful in any classroom.)
- Wood, Will C.: Teaching the United States constitution and American ideals: an analysis of the law and suggestions for meeting the requirements. California State Department of Education Bulletin 4-A. pp. 8. 1924.
- Woodburn, James Albert: The American republic and its government: an analysis of the government with a consideration of the fundamental principles and its relations to states and territories. Putnams: 1916. pp. 398. \$2.50.
- Woodburn, James Albert: Political parties and party problems in the United States. Putnams. \$3.50.
(A consideration of the rise of divided opinion.)
- Young, James Thomas: The new American government and its work. Macmillan: 1919. pp. xli, 679. \$2.25.
(A very full analysis.)

SOURCE MATERIAL

- Beard, Charles Austin: Readings in American government and politics. Macmillan: 1914. pp. xxiii, 638. \$1.90. (A source book, intended to be used with the author's own textbook, but equally helpful for other texts.)
- Elliot Jonathan: Debates...on the...Constitution. Philadelphia (various dates, 1827-1876), 5 vols.
- Farrand, Max: The Records of the Federal Convention of 1787, 3 vols. Yale University Press: 1911.
- Federalist—edited by Henry Cabot Lodge. Putnams. \$3.50.
- Federalist—in Everyman's Library. Dutton. 80c. (One or more of these editions should have a place on the reference shelf, as showing the arguments advanced by the proponents of the constitution at the very outset.)
- Federalist and other papers on the constitution of the United States published during the discussion by the people, 1787-1788. Scott-Foresman: 1921.
- Ford, P. L., editor: The federalist. Holt: sev. ed. (Especially for the editor's comments.)
- Ford, Paul Leicester: Pamphlets on the constitution of the United States published during the discussions by the people, 1787-1788. Brooklyn: 1888. pp. 451. (One of the centennial editions which were in vogue.)
- Hart, Albert Bushnell: American history told by contemporaries. Vol. III—National expansion: 1783-1845. Macmillan: 1901. pp. xx, 663. (Part iv contains several chapters on the constitution.)
- Hart, Albert Bushnell: Source-book of American history. Macmillan: 1905. pp. xvi, 408. (Chapters x and xi present valuable source material.)
- Lodge, Henry Cabot, ed.: The federalist. q.v.
- Madison, James: Journal of the constitutional convention. Scott, Foresman: \$3.00. pp. 945. (Valuable in giving almost at first hand the story of the proceedings.)
- Morison, S. E.: Sources and documents illustrating the American revolution, 1764-1788, and the formation of the federal constitution. Oxford: 1923. (The historical introduction is worthy of notice. The documents gathered here help to throw full light on the period.)
- Old South Leaflets: See—For Teachers' Reference.
- Scott, James Brown: James Madison's notes of the debates in the federal convention of 1787 and the relation to a more perfect society of nations. Oxford: 1918. pp. xviii, 149. (Another edition of the nearest to first-hand information to be obtained.)

POPULAR TREATMENTS

- American Peace Society: See—Call, Arthur Deerin.
- Atwood, Harry Fuller: Back to the republic: the golden mean the standard form of government. Laird & Lee: 1918. xi, 154. \$1.00. (One of the "more radical" treatments, differing somewhat from the usual interpretation.)
- Atwood, Harry Fuller: Safeguarding American ideals. Laird & Lee: 1921. pp. 125. \$1.00. (In the nature of a sequel to the preceding.)
- California: See—Wood, Will C., under For Teachers' Reference.
- Call, Arthur Deerin: The federal convention of 1787—an international conference adequate to its purpose. American Peace Society: 1919. pp. 81. 25c. (A pamphlet which should be placed in the hands of every student. The text of the declaration of independence, the articles of confederation, and the constitution are given. Helpful maps are reproduced. A comparison with the problem of instituting the League of Nations makes it up to date.)
- Clark, S. S.: The government, what it is, what it does. N. Y.: 1902. pp. 304.
- de Koven (Mrs.), Reginald: A primer of citizenship. Dutton: 1922, 1924. pp. ix, 201. (A popularly written treatise, in simple language.)

- Dole, Charles Fletcher: The new American citizen: the essentials of civics and economics. Heath: 1918. pp. ix, 376. \$1.00. (Inexpensive and convenient for those who must economize on time, space, and outlay.)
- Forman, Samuel Eagle: Our republic. Century. (The nation's story, with its development analyzed.)
- Franc, Alissa: Use your government: what your government does for you. Dutton: 1918. pp. xvi, 374. (A detailed account of the activities of the various departments, tracing their services to the individual.)
- Gauss, C.: Democracy Today. New York: 1917.
- Haines, Lynn: Your congress: an interpretation of the political and parliamentary influences that dominate law-making in congress. National Voters' League: 1915. Cloth, \$1.15; paper, 65c. (Some of the "actual practices" are here set forth.)
- Harrison, Benjamin: This country of ours. (A popular presentation by a former president.)
- Haskins, Frederick J.: The American government. Lippincott: 1912. \$1.00, 80c. (A book frequently referred to.)
- Hill, David Jayne: Americanism—what it means. Appleton: 1916. pp. xiv, 280. \$1.25. (The ideal again considered.)
- Hill, David Jayne: Our great inheritance. National Assn. for Constitutional Govt.: 1919. pp. 24. (A reprint of an address which excited favorable comment.)
- MacDonald, William: A new constitution for a new America. Huebsch. \$2.00. (A tirade against the present order of things.)
- Mason, Augustus Lynch: Guiding principles for American voters, an introduction to the study of elementary Americanism. pp. 287. (Two chapters on the American form of government and an explanation of our party system.)
- Smith, James Allen: The spirit of American government. Macmillan: 1907. pp. xv, 409. (A real appreciation of our aims and ideals.)
- Taft, William Howard: Liberty under law: an interpretation of the principles of our constitutional government. Yale University Press: 1922. pp. 51. \$1.00. (Mr. Taft, as president and as chief justice, has had unusual opportunities to study our governmental system.)
- Thompson, Charles Willis: The new voter: things he and she ought to know about politics and citizenship. Putnams: 1918. pp. x, 349. \$1.50. (A practical attempt to bring the responsibilities of citizenship close to the average citizen.)

ADVANCED TEXTS

- Beard, Charles Austin: American government and politics. Macmillan: 1914. pp. x, 788. \$2.10.
- Chronicles of America: Vol. XIII—The fathers of the constitutions. (Popular, concise, authoritative.)
- Dealey, James Quayle: Growth of American State constitutions from 1776-1914. Ginn: 1915. pp. viii, 308. \$1.40. (Showing the "powers reserved to and exercised by the component parts of the nation.")
- Fish, Carl Russell: The development of American nationality. American Bk. Co.: 1919. pp. xii, 568, xxxix. \$2.50. (One of the most readable college texts.)
- Goodnow, Frank J.: Principles of constitutional government. Harpers: 1916. pp. 396. \$2.00. (Offers a good foundation for the teacher's work.)
- Haines, Charles Grove, and Haines, Bertha Harner: Principles and problems of government. Harpers: 1921. pp. xvi, 597. \$3.00. (A recent and satisfactory presentation.)
- Hart, Albert Bushnell: The formation of the union. Longmans, Green: 1892. pp. xx, 278. (Chapters v, vi, vii give excellent assistance.)
- Kimball, Everett: The national government of the United States. Ginn: 1920. pp. v, 629. \$3.60.

- (A full account which teachers will find illuminating.)
 Kimball, Everett: State and municipal government in the United States. Ginn: 1924. \$3.50.
 (A companion volume, helpful in showing the activities of the states which compose the nation.)
 Munro, William Bennett: The government of the United States. Macmillan: 1925.
 Ray, Perley Orman: Introduction to political parties and practical politics. Scribners: 1922. pp. xi, 676. \$1.80.
 (Throwing light on the actual practices which have grown up around and about the framework of our government.)
 Wilson, Woodrow: Constitutional government in the United States. Columbia Univ. Press: 1917. pp. vii, 236. \$2.00.
 Wilson, Woodrow: The state: elements of historical and practical politics. Heath: 1911. pp. 656. \$2.00.
 (Both of these works have passed through revisions.)

SECONDARY TEXTS—JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

- Ashley, Roscoe Lewis: American government. Macmillan: several editions.
 Ashley, Roscoe Lewis: The constitution today. Macmillan: 1924. pp. xiii, 237. \$1.20.
 (As the title indicates, a practical book with the right "slant.")
 Ashley, Roscoe Lewis: The new civics: a textbook for secondary schools. Macmillan: 1917. pp. xxviii, 420. \$1.20.
 (Treating of the constitution among other matters.)
 Beard, Charles Austin, and Beard, Mary Ritter: American citizenship. Macmillan: 1914. pp. xiii, 330. \$1.00.
 (Among the best.)
 Boynton, Frank David: School civics: an outline study of the origin and development of government and political institutions in the United States. Ginn: 1916. pp. xxiv, 401, xxxiv. \$1.12.
 Cloud, A. J.: Our constitution: its story, its meaning, its use. Scott, Foresman: 1923. pp. 224.
 (Apt quotations and illustrations. One of the volumes in response to recent legislation.)
 Davis, S. E., and McClure, C. H.: Our Government. Laidlaw Bros.: Chicago, 1922.
 Dawson, Edgar: Organized self-government. Holt: 1920. pp. vi, 383. \$1.40.
 (Practical and interest-provoking.)
 Dunn, Arthur William: The community and the citizen. Heath: 1914. pp. x, 226.
 (Chapter xxiv.)
 Finch, C. E.: Everyday civics. Amer. Bk. Co.: 1921.
 Forman, Samuel Eagle: Advanced civics. Century: 1919. \$1.75.
 (A portion deals with the provisions of the constitution.)
 Forman, Samuel Eagle: The American democracy. Century: 1920. pp. xviii, 474. \$1.75.
 (The ideals of our nation expressed anew.)
 Garner, James Wilford: Government in the United States. Am. Bk. Co.: 1920. pp. 416. \$1.00.
 (The political aspects of the nation.)
 Gettell, Raymond Garfield: The constitution of the United States—a study of the fundamental ideals, principles, and institutions of the American government. Ginn: 1924. pp. viii, 213.
 (Particularly rich in appendices giving the texts of various documents, and tables containing essential information on population, admission of states, etc.)
 Guiteau, William Bakus: Government and politics in the United States. pp. xiv, 324, xxxiv. Houghton Mifflin: 1916. 95c.
 (A briefer edition of a work that has proved its value.)
 Hart, Albert Bushnell: We and our history: a biography of the American people. American Viewpoint Society: 1923. pp. 314.
 (With large pages and many illustrations, decidedly attractive. The texts of many necessary documents are reproduced in full.)
 Hayes, Bridget T.: American democracy; its history and problems. Holt: 1921. pp. xxxvi, 405.
 (Especially valuable for its outline summaries.)
 Hepner, W. R., and Hepner, F. K.: The good citizen. Houghton Mifflin: 1924.
 Higgins, Alvin M.: "We, the people—" The constitution of the United States with comments and explanation. World Book Co.: 1924. pp. vii, 56.
 (The text relieved by running comments.)
 Hill, Howard Copeland: Community life and civic problems. Ginn: 1922. pp. xxii, 528, xxxiii.
 (Chapter xix treats of the national government.)
 Hughes, R. O.: Community civics. Allyn & Bacon: 1917. pp. xxii, 506.
 (Several chapters devoted to the national government.)
 Hughes, R. O.: A textbook in citizenship. Allyn & Bacon: 1923.
 (Part iii contains pertinent material.)
 Jenks, Jeremiah Whipple, and Smith, Rufus Daniel: We and our government. American Viewpoint Society: 1922. pp. 223.
 (A "sugar-coated" treatment that must be effective.)
 Lapp, J. A.: Our America. Bobbs-Merrill Co.: Indianapolis, 1918.
 Lockridge, Ross F.: How government functions in Indiana. World Book Co.: 1920. pp. 120.
 (A pamphlet designed to supplement the usual general textbook. Suggestive for other states.)
 Long, J. R.: Government and the people. Scribners: 1922.
 Magruder, Frank Abbott: American government in 1925; with a consideration of problems of democracy. Allyn & Bacon: 1925. pp. xvi, 460, 18.
 (With a new edition every year, this book is always up to date. The first half treats of national affairs.)
 Moran, Thomas Francis: See—Woodburn.
 Reed, Thomas Harrison: Form and functions of American government. World Book Co.: 1923. pp. xvi, 549.
 (A very full and comprehensive treatment.)
 Reinsch, Paul Samuel: Civil government. Sanborn: 1918. pp. x, 272. 80c.
 Smith, Rufus Daniel: See—Jenks.
 Southworth, A. T.: The common sense of the constitution of the United States. Allyn & Bacon: 1924. pp. xiv, 145. 45c.
 (The most useful of the small handbooks which have appeared in recent months. The fruit of long experimentation in the English high school, Boston, Mass., the book is well adapted to the use of students either in class or independently.)
 West, Willis Mason: American history and government. Allyn & Bacon: 1913. pp. xiii, 801. \$2.50.
 (A standard history text which gives rather full attention to governmental activities.)
 Woodburn, James Albert, and Moran, Thomas Francis: The American community; an elementary text in community civics. Longmans, Green: 1924. pp. 455.
 Woodburn, James Albert, and Moran, Thomas Francis: The citizen and the republic. Longmans, Green: 1918. pp. viii, 424, xlv.
 (One or another of these volumes should fit the needs of any class. The last particularly is rich in informational tables.)

ELEMENTARY TEXTS

- Bailey, Carolyn Sherwin: What to do for Uncle Sam: a first book of citizenship. Flanagan: 1918. pp. 220. 75c.
 (Citizenship motivated.)
 Brooks, Noah: How the republic is governed. Scribners: 1899. pp. vii, 169.
 (An old, but still useful book.)
 Guiteau, William Bakus: Preparing for citizenship: an elementary textbook in civics. Houghton Mifflin: 1913. pp. xii, 238; xli.
 Reed, Thomas Harrison: Loyal citizenship. World Book Co.: 1922. pp. x, 333.
 (Part iv particularly treats of the constitution.)

Turkington, Grace: *My country: a textbook in civics and patriotism for young Americans*. Ginn: 1918. pp. v, 394. 96c.
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Civics: The Focal Point of the Curriculum

BY JAMES COLLETTI, HIGH SCHOOL, DAVENPORT, IOWA

We wish to brush aside all the commonplace assumptions as to the objectives and the value of the study of civics. That is apologetic ground long since traversed. Nor do we propose to devote any time to the technique of teaching, the range of the subject matter, or the selection of this text in preference to that. In most of these fields prescription is futile. The possibilities of effective teaching are so many that it is a bit gratuitous to dictate or to prescribe. Suggestion, even, is superfluous.

What we propose to do, then, is modestly to attempt an interpretation of the significance of the place of the subject of civics in the high school curriculum. To restrict our purpose so brings a twofold advantage: it will center our attention on a vital concern, a proper appreciation of which may later inform our whole attitude toward our subject, and second (and bless the mark!), it will make this paper brief.

Let me begin, then, in proper style. Let me tell a story.

A fond parent was very proud of the stunts they were doing at the smart, private school, to which she had sent her daughter.

"My dear," she said to her friend, "she's learning civics, if you please."

"What's civics?" asked her friend.

"Civics? My dear, don't you know? Why, it's the science of interfering in public affairs."

Civics represents one of the many attempts made to socialize the instincts. This attempt to socialize the instincts, as it gathers itself up on the scope of the subject of civics, enjoys the advantages of coming at an early period in the formal education of the boy and girl. Because it aims to socialize the instincts, civics may properly claim the focal place in the curriculum, for it aims steadily and squarely at

the theory and realization, in action, of the social virtues. Civics seeks to bring early within the mental and emotional experience of the boy and girl the essential problems of citizenship, which is the fine art of living together effectively and harmoniously.

In most cases, civics is the study which presents to the mind of the high school boy and girl the first synthesis of social life, and it behooves the teacher of civics to be ready at that time to make the presentation of that first and revealing synthesis, as deep, rich, beautiful, compelling, and far-reaching as information, sympathy, imagination, and spiritual insight can make it. At this point the teacher must stand ready to present and to make valid, in the finest sense, the economic, social, and political sanctions of our common life.

Here there may be some silent objection made that civics, and the teacher of civics, should confine its and his attention to the proper field of political theory and practice, and not divagate into allied fields of economics and sociology. That is another way of presenting the old bone of contention as to the precise demarcation, which conveniently sets these fields off one from the other. I decline to enter the debate on this point, but must satisfy myself, if not my auditors, by submitting these two bits of observation: First, mark the tendency in more recent texts to combine sociology, economics, and politics (elementary, of course), and, second, who has been able to evade the implications of these fields in the face of pertinent questions from boys and girls who perpetually, though unconsciously, mingle these types and systems of information? It is not a completely valid argument on the part of the opposition to say that the amalgamation has been made at the urgent cry for time by the curriculum makers. Something more than that is necessary to account for the presentation of these three fields of interest in an elementary synthesis, properly correlated, for analysis and digestion on the part of high school students. The three fields are separable in textbooks—not in life.

It may be further objected that the average high school boy or girl is not qualified to appreciate these implications. How far, then, may the teacher go? The answer to this question is very simple, and, in a sense, conclusive. The teacher must go as far as possible. The teacher should undertake to be as serious and as profound and subtle as he progressively discovers ever-widening areas of sympathetic response from his pupils. At this point there is no mathematical limit predictable or prescriptible. Here is opportunity and occasion for the teacher to sow deep the seed of generous thinking and loyalty to social ideals, which are the stuff and breath of life. And let the teacher keep lucidly and endlessly in view the fact that the human mind is as much mind at sixteen or seventeen as it is mind at sixty or seventy! Where, but for a bit of summer magic, lies the difference between a high school senior and a college student?

In recent years the pedagogic emphasis has been heavily laid on the psychological analysis of the

child. The findings have been illuminating and fruitful. But one may be pardoned if, in a rash moment, he should permit himself to enter a demurrer. My own feeling in the matter is that in analyzing the child we have lost sight of the high function of the teacher. The surest way of getting lasting results in education is not the statistical report of child powers (for here we enter the endless forest of individual children), but by preparing the noblest training for the teacher. In the endeavor to exalt the child powers, in the endless examination and cross-examination and review of child-mind functions, we have, I fear, unduly minimized the significance of the teacher who is the spiritual father of the child. Will you permit just one example? Since the war, much has been written and spoken in criticism of some of our textbooks in American history in use in the high school. Columns have been devoted to more or less enlightened ravings about the minutiae and small talk concerning heroes, and hero-worship in textbooks; of the retailing of gossip or myth, men have made broad accusations against the authors of a number of texts, bringing into question their patriotism and accusing them with immense brutality of pro-this or pro-that sympathy. I have seen nothing in such penny-dreadful exercises which has taken cognizance of the presence of a trained man or woman, who helps to guide the mind and spirit of the boys and girls in an attempt to evaluate the essential meaning of any movement, condition, or personality discussed in the text. Why has the teacher been so poorly recognized? Does the presence of a teacher in a schoolroom make any difference? The whole point of this paper is to maintain that most of the difference between haphazard, slipshod, and fruitless, and, per contra, careful, honest, purposive, and functifying experience in classroom endeavor, is to be found in the person and equipment of the teacher. And that difference, I submit, is pre-eminently to be measured and assessed in the sort of instruction and guidance given in the civics course.

TRAINING THE TEACHER

In this connection, let me refer you, for a moment, to the remarkable experiment now being tried in India, under the guidance of that great soul, Gandhi, who has, in his own case, understood and appreciated to the limit the significant and pivotal position which the teacher should occupy in a scheme of popular education. I wish merely to list some of the quasi-monastic requirements which a candidate for a school teacher's calling has to meet.

At Satyarah Ashram, which, being interpreted, is a place of discipline for using a just effort, or for resistance to injustice, these elements mark part of the training for the teacher-candidate.

1. A vow of truth. It is not enough not to resort to untruth. No deception may be practiced, even for the good of the country. Truth may require opposition to parents and teachers.
2. The vow of Ahimsa (non-killing). It is not enough not to take the life of any living being. One may not even hurt those whom he believes

to be unjust; he may not be angry with them, he must love them, suffer punishment even unto death for disobeying his will.

3. The vow of celibacy.
4. The control of the palate.
5. The vow of non-stealing.
6. The vow of non-possession, which aims at constantly simplifying life.
7. Fearlessness. He who is acted upon by fear cannot follow truth (Ahimisa). A truly fearless man will defend himself against others by truth-force.

It goes without saying, naturally, that the reference to the teacher's training institute in India has no immediate significance or parallel in this country, but it also goes without saying that the ideal set forth for the Indian teacher is, I venture to say, a valid, pertinent, and functifying ideal for the teacher of youth everywhere. Deeper reflection on the items of that self-same Indian discipline will reveal how really and how nearly it touches us who are teachers. Let me recall the first, the second, and the seventh items, and try to point out American, or, if you will, occidental parallels.

ORIENTAL

1. A vow of truth. It is not enough not to resort to untruth. No deception may be practiced, even for the good of the county. Truth may require opposition to parents and teachers.
2. The vow of Ahimisa (non-killing). It is not enough not to take the life of any living being. One may not even hurt those whom he believes to be unjust; he may not be angry with them, he must love them, suffer punishment even unto death for disobeying his will.
3. Fearlessness—he who is acted upon by fear cannot follow truth (Ahimisa). A truly fearless man will defend himself against others by truth-force.

OCCIDENTAL

1. Pragmatic Truth. Knowing the facts and giving the right impression (in teaching).
2. The Problem of War (pacifism).
3. Freedom of Speech.

And for purposes of illustration, I wish to present three typical problems which face a teacher of civics. When a day discussion centers about the matter of war: War can be presented in the old-fashioned colors, with the glitter of sword and bayonet and epaulettes and bedecked horses, prancing to the stimulation of the brass band, or the haunting appeal of fife and drums. On the other hand, what and

how much shall the teacher present of the rising tide of criticism against the war business—voiced in political campaigns, in journals of opinion, and religious forums? What shall a teacher do? Asking the question is no answer. The question of war is the most disturbing question which can come up in the civics discussion. Where shall the line be drawn in the quick-sand decision which distinguishes *offensive* war from *defensive* war? Who shall deliver us from the matter of presenting the whole problem involved in a *just* war or an *unjust* war? That probes to the quick of the mind and the soul, and our vision of truth, as we are passing it on to the new generation, may be veiled by timidity or over-cautious conservatism. Are not teachers being tried as by fire? Shall they offer incense on the altar of the status quo, or plead until the victory is won, for the right of expressing the opinion of an enlightened conscience?

A second example, closely allied and partaking of the same nature as the first, is the question of patriotism when confronted with the problem of international rights and obligations. Within the limits of what sort of straitjacket morality shall we permit the mind of the young to gibber—when patriotism is defined in prehistoric terms—and when the eyes of conscience, knowledge, and science point to a new interpretation? What can we teach, if we draw the line of our ranging thought tightly around the three-mile limit? Shades of race superiority and Nordic supremacy hover over us! Economic absolutism has become the touchstone of our new morality and our latest polity. How can we dare to lead the young into the same blind alleys, where the past generation so tragically ended the authority of its economic, social, political, and moral sanctions. Take as a superb text Stephen Decatur's saying:

"My country, in her intercourse with other nations, may she be right; but my country, right or wrong," and submit it to the quizzical analysis of sane and wholesome boys and girls, and, to your amazement, you will discover the darkened conscience and the more tragic self-will that conditions its morality altogether on convenience or power.

Still another example of the sort of civics problems, which need a teacher's guidance, resolves itself about the question of party loyalty. When, in the history of our country, has the need for clearing up this problem been more urgent? The recent campaign has brought into sharp relief the whole problem, and local newspapers, and, in particular, the newspapers of Iowa, have undertaken to lead the judgment of their readers. The boys and girls of our high schools read the newspapers. These same boys and girls sense the difficulty involved and ask for advice. What shall the teacher say? The answer seems simple. Say what the book says, and advise that the question of abiding by or bolting a party involves a matter of conscience, of loyalty—that loyalty to a greater cause which may and does and should take precedence over the loyalty due any particular party. But is there nothing else to say? There is no finer point in the whole course at which

may be driven home the outstanding truth—that citizenship is a matter of character, of courage, of conscience; that citizenship involves the whole man; that voting is not a holiday affair; that party is an instrument in the hands of voters to register the will and conscience of the people, and to say *that*, in the face of all the half-baked, misshapen, often false, bitter, and inane hokum of all newspaperdom. It is the finest chance in the world to point out the moral obligation of being intelligent and to vindicate once and for all the simple majesty of plain thinking.

REDIRECTING ANTI-SOCIAL IMPULSES

A recent article in one of the magazines enjoying a huge circulation made clear the need of detecting and correcting, wherever that is possible, the ever-recurring incipient mental abnormalities in students. That work can with difficulty be done in the regular courses in school, because the opportunities for emotional self-expression are so few. But in civics we said the attempt is being made to socialize the instincts. In the further attempt to integrate all the normal interests of life into a revealing synthesis very often, daily, some boy or girl in a group of twenty-five or thirty, under the stimulation of a potent social problem, is brought to express his or her idea on any given question. At such times there is often revealed a barbaric individualism and an anti-social tendency of the worst sort. What a magnificent opportunity for redirecting such currents of thought and the emotional complexes which accompany them, and so perhaps save that particular individual from joining the army of 240,000 young men and women, between the ages of 18-30, who annually find their place in public and private asylums. The civics course, in its finest sense, should help to cleanse the mind and spirit of the anti-social boy or girl, and offer incentives of lasting character for the pursuit of the normal and wholesome interests of group life. There may be a more or less clear distinction between a white lie and a black one in the mind of an adult, but what sort of distinction, think you, can there be in the mind of the boy or girl? The result is to give the impression that truth is a grey somewhat, rather than a shining light, guiding us to spiritual liberation.

THE CLASSROOM AS A SOCIAL MICROCOSM

Paradoxical as it may seem, I am in favor of having a large, mixed class in civics, having the normal percentage of dull, average bright, bright, and very bright pupil distribution. Such a distribution produces, on a small scale, the actual working conditions of the average social group. The slow student acts as a foil for the quick one, and the quick acts as a stimulus to the slow-witted. It is such a social condition in the schoolroom which furnishes an ideal testing ground for the growth of the virtues of humility and patience, and affords to all concerned a foretaste of the depth and worth of good will. Life is fitted with slow folks. And in the classroom may be settled for the embryo citizen the question: What shall I do with slow persons? Shall I drive them off their feet, or live with them in considerate fellowship?

It is such a condition which will sober and check from the beginning the brilliant, the unstable, or the erratic. Here early may be learned the truth that a true democracy must ultimately be envisaged as a spiritual state.

"ESCAPE ETHICS"

No richer source than the study of civics in the presence of the blossoming minds of the coming generation can be found to combat the deluge of fallacy and sophistry which finds its complete fruition in a system of escape ethics. There is no valid prescription against treason in high and low places, against the endless process of poisoning public confidence in public officials, against that whole tide of half-concealed, half-disclosed suspicion, innuendo, and brazen defiance of the public weal by men chosen to conduct our public affairs, unless there is kept burning at the point of incandescence a consuming passion for the performance of individual, personal duty—the stern voice of that direct daughter of god—Duty! which is the pull of the larger loyalty above the smaller and narrower, and which issues forth ultimately as the struggle of a free people to keep free. No greater ruin is being worked to the hope of good government and self-government than the repetition of the commonplace slander against the whole spiritual heritage of the past, incarnated in men and women who did their duty as they saw it, and at any cost, by insinuating that it all was done for selfish purposes. Civics is another term for social obligations. Rights are a danger and an impertinence in the power of a people who have yet to learn the elementary meaning of simple duty simply done. What new standard of civic duty and of civic righteousness can we supply to these boys and girls, new ministrants at the altar of our common life, when all about them the common sanctions, which have defined for us, at least, what was right and wrong, are being sapped and explained away in the vague formulas of relativity? Are we, in the presence of such a situation, to be pumpers of old concepts and old ideas, whose meat has been sucked out of them by generations of abuse, denial, and betrayal; or are we to be the lurers into new level of actions, urged by a compelling sense of social duty and necessity? Is it our task to show the quasi-identity between obedience and intelligence? To obey a true master is to exhibit intelligence. Civics should greatly help to make clear whom and what and when we must obey.

THE LACK OF ETHICAL AND RELIGIOUS COMPULSIONS

It comes as a damaging bit of revelation, based on experience, that much of the effort put into the effective teaching of civics misses fire, because of some vague lack somewhere before the task is begun in the civics classroom, with students otherwise ready and qualified to carry on the study. Somehow, in spite of a personal belief in the Socratic formula that virtue can be taught, we find discouragement all along the line, because, before the task is handed on to you and me, some one has, or perhaps all responsible persons have, neglected to teach virtue. Very often discussions in classroom touch the rock-bottom

of experience and the very springs of action. There is no easy formula to embody the principle of what is right or wrong. Specific problems demand specific answers, it is true. But what is lacking is the trained or incipient attitude, which, in the form of a habit, should automatically respond to the common problems involving right and wrong choices. Pupils lack the training which should form the commonly accepted ground necessary to proceed with profit into the study of civics.

I do not say that this is true in 100 per cent. of the cases, but in a very large number, say, in the majority of cases, I venture to assert, that there is lacking the essential and fundamental ethical, not to say religious, compulsions, which lead to normal and decent and elevated behavior and thought. Read, if you will, and carefully reflect over, the findings reported by Mr. W. G. Shepherd, as to the status of moral and ethical behavior of ordinary school children when confronted with commonplace problems involving correct elementary, moral responses. No training in social thinking and behavior is worth a ruble, unless it can sustain, and, in turn, be sustained, by wholesome, elementary, ethical, and religious sanctions, bred and inbred to the point of habitual and automatic response, in the generation appearing before us daily in school to learn the ways of citizenship.

THE GOAL OF CIVICS

So conceived and so interpreted, is there still among us any doubt that the study of civics is the key-study and focal point in the curriculum of the high school? Does it not furnish a magnificent opportunity for the social-minded teacher to lead the thinking boys and girls into the adventure of a political faith and fellowship, whose deepest and broadest loyalty shall be a loyalty to all the noble loyalties of justice, honorable dealing, moral heroism, and mercy? Is not any attempt to stunt or to shunt such a possibility a crime in pedagogy and in morals? Does not the opportunity to utilize such a possibility represent, in a profound sense, the compelling and compensating reward one gets for continuing the spiritual gamble, which goes by the name of education for democracy? Does not the teaching of civics, conceived as the integration of all the strands of community life and interests, issuing forth into a pattern-guide to clear thinking, decent living, and fair dealing for the increasing good of the social group, offer a field of activity which may honorably command the highest powers of one called to be a teacher?

The future belongs to youth; that is a truism. The teacher of civics can help to reshape the world, and move it, too, though it be ever so little, in the right direction, by stimulating all the noble and generous aspirations of youth, and by assisting it to socialize all its instincts in such a way as shall equip it to do battle against all the mean and hopelessly degrading elements that inevitably creep into the life of every community to soil it, to beat down its beauty, and to deafen one's listening spirit, to the compelling call of inescapable duty.

STATEMENT OF THE OWNERSHIP, MANAGEMENT, CIRCULATION, ETC., REQUIRED BY THE ACT OF CONGRESS OF AUGUST 24, 1912 of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, published monthly, except June, July, August, and September, at Philadelphia, Pa., for April 1, 1925.

County of Philadelphia,
State of Pennsylvania,

Before me, a notary public in and for the State and County aforesaid, personally appeared Alfred C. Willits, who, having been duly sworn according to law, deposes and says that he is the business manager of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, and that the following is, to the best of his knowledge and belief, a true statement of the ownership, management (and if a daily paper, the circulation), etc., of the aforesaid publication for the date shown in the above caption, required by the Act of August 24, 1912, embodied in section 443, Postal Laws and Regulations, printed on the reverse of this form, to wit:

1. That the names and addresses of the publisher, editor, managing editor, and business manager are:

Publisher, McKINLEY PUBLISHING Co., 1619-21 Ranstead St., Philadelphia, Pa.

Editor, ALBERT E. McKINLEY, 6901 Germantown Ave., Germantown, Philadelphia, Pa.

Managing Editor, ALBERT E. McKINLEY, 6901 Germantown Ave., Germantown, Philadelphia, Pa.

Business Manager, ALFRED C. WILLITS, 110 W. Johnson St., Germantown, Philadelphia, Pa.

2. That the owners are (give names and addresses of individual owners, or, if a corporation, give its name and the names and addresses of stockholders owning or holding 1 per cent. or more of the total amount of stock).

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3. That the known bondholders, mortgagees, and other security holders owning or holding 1 per cent. or more of total amount of bonds, mortgages, or other securities are (if there are none, so state).

None.

4. That the two paragraphs next above, giving the names of the owners, stockholders, and security holders, if any, contain not only the list of stockholders and security holders as they appear upon the books of the company, but also, in cases where the stockholder or security holder appears upon the books of the company as trustee or in any other fiduciary relation, the name of the person or corporation for whom such trustee is acting, is given; also that the said two paragraphs contain statements embracing affiant's full knowledge and belief as to the circumstances and conditions under which stockholders and security holders who do not appear upon the books of the company as trustees, hold stock and securities in a capacity other than that of a bona fide owner; and this affiant has no reason to believe that any other person, association, or corporation has any interest direct or indirect in the said stock, bonds, or other securities than as so stated by him.

5. That the average number of copies of each issue of this publication sold or distributed, through the mails or otherwise, to paid subscribers during the six months preceding the date shown above is.....

(This information is required from daily publications only.)

ALFRED C. WILLITS,

Sworn to and subscribed before me this 25th day of March, 1925.

JULIA M. O'BRIEN.

Sons of the American Revolution on Education

EDITOR'S NOTE: The Executive Board of The Western Reserve Society, Sons of The American Revolution, on April 25, 1924, adopted the following resolutions on public education. From *Chicago Schools Journal*, Vol. VII, No. 5, Jan. 1925, p. 181.

Western Reserve Chapter, Sons of the American Revolution, recognizing that the welfare of our nation rests in an intelligent, enlightened, and discerning citizenship, and that the continued creation of such citizenship lies in our public schools, adopts the following statement of principles as a policy for public education, which it will support, defend, and encourage:

1. As descendants of those men whose convictions and deeds brought our nation into being, we hold it to be the duty of our public schools not only to venerate the memory of those heroes, but to revivify and illumine the convictions for which they laid down their lives to found a new nation, dedicated to the principles of human liberty and opportunity. We hold that the public schools should teach that government in our democracy is the servant and not the master of a free people.

The schools should reiterate continually the political beliefs of Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, and Lincoln to the end that every generation shall hold in reverence the principles of representative government, free speech, free press, religious liberty for all, separation of church and state, a hatred of governmental tyranny, and the toleration of race and creed so well exemplified later in the thoughts and acts of Abraham Lincoln.

2. If the political philosophy of the founders of the American nation is not kept alive in the hearts and minds of our citizens, the nation itself will cease to be the land of democracy and opportunity for which our forefathers gave up their lives.

Today, no less than in the day of Washington, Franklin, and Jefferson, it is the duty of our citizens to insist upon representative government and the rights which it is the purpose of the Constitution to preserve as a precious and sacred heritage; it is the duty of citizens to examine critically the acts of those in their service in the government and to insist that their representatives in executive, legislative, and judicial positions so act that the nation may be venerated by its own people and by all the world as a land of justice, tolerance, opportunity, and righteousness.

The public schools, therefore, must give close attention to history and civics, with the particular aim of developing citizens who, by their intelligent criticism and their just demands, by holding their representative government to strict accountability, are the guarantee of America's material and spiritual greatness.

3. The public schools must give to every child full and equal opportunity to develop to the very limit

of his individual powers and capacities, to the end that every child may have:

- I. Sound health—mental, moral, physical, spiritual.
- II. Character, implying in addition to principles of honesty and morality a strong sense of his obligation to the rights and legitimate welfare of his family, his community, and his country.
- III. Education and training necessary to insure ability to support himself and to bear his just share of the task of building a community which, more and more, reflects the best ideals of American life.
- IV. Capacity for the wholesome use of leisure time.
- V. A patriotism which holds not that America has done and can do no wrong, but that *America shall do no wrong.*

4. The public schools of our country, confronted with one of the most momentous tasks in all history; namely, that of creating a homogeneous population, permeated by the ideals of such great leaders as Washington and Lincoln, out of the millions of children of immigrants, should have the support, financial and moral, of every citizen and taxpayer.

A sound education is the best investment for the individual, the community, and the nation. Without education the individual has no hope of successful attainment in useful trade, business or citizenship, and without an educated, critically-minded citizenry, the future of the nation is hopeless. Hence, every good American, while duty-bound to hold the public schools to efficient and economical operation, must regard with suspicion or utterly condemn those persons who carry on a propaganda to reduce the funds available to America's schools, a propaganda which, in the measure that it succeeds, strikes at the very foundation of individual and national prosperity and progress and denies to our children their just right and heritage.

5. A grave menace to the realization of the principle of life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness, as enunciated in our Declaration of Independence, lies in religious and racial intolerance. The public schools must seek to eliminate this intolerance, taking as their guiding star the philosophy of Abraham Lincoln.

Americans must be taught to form their estimates of one another not on the basis of belonging to a race or a sect, but on the basis of their lives and acts as individuals. In so far as the principle of immigration is concerned, the public schools must hold that the nation has a right to safeguard itself by restricting immigration, and that such restriction must rest on the fitness of individuals to contribute to the building of a better America.

The Teaching of History in the Junior High School—Dramatization

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH. D., LINCOLN SCHOOL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The drama is the most effective of all the means at the command of the secondary teacher, because it brings into play, at one and the same time, both the eye and the emotions. The appeal to the eye is so real as to convey a maximum stimulus to the emotions, evoking a response which is essentially individualistic. The regular drama, with its combination of acting and speaking, with actual human beings to carry the various rôles, is much nearer to the reality than its photographic or picture substitute. In the motion picture costumes, characters, and setting are the same. The sense of reality is transmitted to the spectator through the movement which is injected into the various scenes. The persons themselves are wanting; there is no dialogue except that which is thrown upon the screen in the form of titles; the settings are optical illusions. All that is really there is a celluloid strip, with tiny images stamped upon it. The significance of all this becomes apparent as the possibilities of dramatization are more clearly realized.

The central aim in the teaching of history, that of re-seeing and re-living past times and situations, can be more nearly realized through dramatization than through any other device, the picture not excepted. This re-seeing and re-living of past experiences is just what a drama is,—a more or less faithful reproduction of some chapter in human relationships. Here is a point of contact with the emotions which will not only furnish a channel for their expression, but will, at the same time, cultivate that historical sense which is the ultimate goal of all history teaching. Nor are the uses of the drama necessarily limited to any one of the "elements" with which we are concerned. It may become the medium through which any one or all of them may be emphasized. It may even prepare the way for an understanding of that more difficult aspect of the subject, development and continuity.

The regular drama satisfies at least three purposes. It stimulates the imagination; it arouses the emotions; and last, but by no means least important, it furnishes a satisfying vehicle of self-expression. The spectator or actor is transferred to another world and, for the moment, has detached himself from his present surroundings and has been transported to other scenes and to other times,—to an entirely *different* environment. Those who are more or less devoid of imagination are supplied with images which tend to increase the range of their imaginative faculties. At the same time the emotions are aroused and the spectator rejoices or grieves, as the case may be, with the persons whose feelings and actions are being portrayed.

Its possibilities as a vehicle of self-expression in the schools have just begun to be recognized. The attempt to portray a character or to fit one's self into a scene, is a challenge to the would-be actor to make his own thoughts, feelings and acts respond to the situation which he seeks to reproduce. Just here is where the limitations of the motion picture are apparent. The boy or girl may be swept off his feet emotionally as the film passes before him. It may leave behind it a series of vivid pictures impressed upon the mind. It may develop in him a critical attitude toward that which is bizarre and unreal in such portrayals. He may share in a very real way some of the emotions of the actors. But in the last analysis it is only a picture with all the unreality characteristic of an ingenious, but mechanical attempt to reproduce a scene from life. True, it may serve as a model or as a background for his own imagery. It may actually supply new material. In all these particulars it differs but little from the general run of pictures. It is its apparent life and movement which give it its gripping qualities.

Although he may be powerfully stirred by such living, pictorial representations, they may resolve themselves into a series of passing emotions and end there. This is not true of the regular drama, when it is used as a vehicle for self-expression. The moment these situations are embodied in living, vocal personalities, however illusive the stage settings, they create an atmosphere which is lacking even in the most effective movie. If the scene is one of the student's own creation and he himself is one of the actors, it becomes a potent agency for producing the most lasting and abiding impressions. These deeper impressions remain long after many of the details have faded from the memory.

That there are great possibilities linked up with the motion picture, particularly in the junior high school, is beyond question. Actual classroom practice in its use has been somewhat limited. An historical motion picture on the order of the *Chronicles of America Photoplays* enables a class to follow in a unique and impressive way the unfolding of a series of related episodes. They make possible such a combination of actor, action and environment as to provide the class with that element of unity which is so often lacking in the textbook narrative. While they share with the picture all its potentialities, their use does not end there. Though lacking—as they undoubtedly do—many of the advantages of the spoken drama, their contribution to effective teaching in the future will be such as to compel every live teacher to acquaint himself with the various efforts which are now under way to produce satisfactory films and to evolve a classroom technique for their use. As a form

of dramatization, however, the essential differences already pointed out which distinguish them from the regular drama, must be constantly borne in mind.

At least two conditions must be satisfied if dramatization is to be successfully utilized. Teacher and class must have some knowledge of the technique involved in the successful writing and acting of plays. This need not involve long and detailed study. They should know something about the number of acts, the division of acts into scenes, their number and use, the use of characters (*dramatis personæ*), and the part played by time, place, and dialogue, in work of this kind. Pupils are learning much of this now in the primary grades, where the Little Red Hen and the Three Bears, and other stories are successfully dramatized.

More important, perhaps, is the recognition of the relation of the particular material to be used to the method proposed. Does it lend itself readily to dramatic use? What is the material like? Successful dramatization for the purposes of the class in history often places, relatively, as much value upon the incorporation of a maximum amount of *material* into the exercise as upon the recognition of dramatic situations or of dramatic values. The younger students will often submit a dramatization deserving of commendation as an English exercise, but well nigh worthless from the standpoint of the teacher of history.

The following attempt by a seventh-grade girl to dramatize the building of the Parthenon reveals a maximum amount of such material:

ACT II

The Building of the Parthenon

Characters:

Pericles Henry
Callicrates (architect) Betty
Ictinus (architect) Peter
Phidias (sculptor) Hilda

Scene I—On the Acropolis.

Pericles walks in with *Callicrates* and *Ictinus*.

Pericles: At last, at last, the Parthenon of my dream will be built.

Ictinus: Yes, *Pericles*, it will be built very soon. How like you our plan? (Hands him plan.)

Pericles: Wonderful, who will be the sculptor?

Callicrates: *Phidias*, but I know not his plan.

Ictinus: Here he comes. (*Phidias* enters.)

Pericles: Welcome, O *Phidias*. I hear it is you that will build our statue of *Athene*.

Phidias: Yes, *Pericles*, it is I.

Pericles: Tell me, of what will you make it, and where will you put it?

Phidias (dreamily): I mean to put it in a great room where only a soft light can enter. She will be about forty feet tall, gazing kindly down upon our city, protecting it from all harm. Her face, hands, and feet will be of soft-gleaming ivory, and her robe will be of gold.

Pericles: Beautiful, *Phidias*! It will be beautiful, I am sure. I can see her already with a fire burning at her feet and our Athenians bringing her gifts and

sacrifices. Have you not a plan also, *Ictinus* and *Callicrates*? Can you tell us how the Parthenon will look?

Callicrates: As for the size, it will be 100 feet wide, 226 feet long, and 65 feet high. It will be built of marble, with a porch on all sides. The roof will be held up by columns. Above the porches, in the gable ends, will be great groups of marble statues, large as life, showing the deeds of *Athene*. *Ictinus*, will you tell us some more of how the Parthenon will look?

Ictinus: As *Callicrates* gave already a picture of the Parthenon, I have but one thing to add. The whole building will be of marble, marble walls, marble floors, marble columns, marble statues, and even marble tiles on the roof, but think not it will be a mass of blinding whiteness. No, we will have it painted. Yes, the columns will be a deep color, around the doors and walls a border will be painted, maybe of leaves. And the statues will be delicately tinted so that the skin is flesh color, the eyes blue, and even the garments tinted.

The organization of material for dramatic use, as this illustration itself reveals, demands a painstaking analysis of the material to determine its dramatic values and to give the presentation that verisimilitude which is the criterion of success. A more careful sifting of the available materials will accompany exercises of this sort than the more formal work of an academic character. And such data will find a surer lodgement in the memory. Each student is bringing his own individuality to play upon the situation as he tries to place himself in the desired rôle, or as he seeks to envisage the actual setting and translate it into his own words. In the following attempt by a seventh-grade boy to dramatize the Peloponnesian War, using the account by Miss Jennie Hall in *Our Ancestors in Europe*, supplemented by such other material as might be needed to make it intelligible, it will be noted how carefully he has scanned the account upon which he was forced to depend:

SPARTA CONQUERS ATHENS—THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR

Time: 404 B. C.

Place: Athens—Agora. Spartans camped about city.

Cast: Spartan soldiers—*Lysander*, Spartan General. Athenian citizens and soldiers. *Hecuba*, mother of *Cleon*. *Cleon*.

Scene I

Cleon (to *Hecuba*): Ah, mother, we are sore beset.

Hecuba: Are there not enough brave men in Athens to protect her from the Spartans?

Cleon: Nay, mother, every man in Athens is going to fight, but what are so few against so many. We will be starved to death in our own city. But we will famish rather than surrender.

Hecuba: I would that all men were your equal, *Cleon*.

Cleon: If we had never followed *Alcibiades*' lead.

Oh, if we had never tried to conquer Syracuse. There we met our doom. Oh, Alcibiades, it was you who led our 40,000 men to their death. If we had never followed you we would now have Sparta under our feet.

Hecuba: It is only too true, Cleon, only too true. (Trumpet sounds without wall.)

Cleon: 'Tis the Spartans. They think to make us surrender. (Cleon laughs grimly.) I must be off to do my duty. Farewell, mother. Go you to pray for our deliverance. Pray well to Athens that she may not let her city, her Athens, be harmed. Farewell!

Curtain.

Scene II

Athenians fleeing back into city, Cleon attempting to rally them.

Cleon: Comrades, come take heart, let not the Spartans capture Athens. Fight, lose not your courage, there is still a chance of victory.

(Soldiers and citizens form in line. Spartans appear.)

Lysander: Come, men, here is our prey.

(Spartans charge. Athenians scattered. Cleon engages with Lysander.)

Cleon (to Lysander): It is your life or mine. I fight for liberty and Athens, you for petty jealousy.

Lysander: Come, men, come to the rescue of your captain.

(Soldiers come and overpower Cleon.)

Cleon: Coward.

Curtain.

Scene III

Spartans in power, Athens reduced to misery.

Cleon (wounded, to Hecuba): Mother, what is life for me now? Athens is conquered. She must bow down before Sparta. We, her citizens, must tear down the great walls built by Pericles from Athens to Piraeus. They treat us as dogs, we, who were once the greatest of all cities. Athens was mistress of Greece under Pericles, but now her glory has departed.

Hecuba: It is true that we are no longer strong and powerful as before, but may we not keep the fire of our ancient splendor alight.

Cleon: Yea, mother, what you say is true, we must never forget the days when we headed the Delian League.

Hecuba: We may yet go down in the annals of history as the greatest and most powerful of all the Greek states. Athens will still be known as the city where culture, education, beauty and public spirit centered.

Cleon: I pray that it be so, mother. Let us hope for better days to come.

Curtain.

Informal dramatization is to be preferred to the more formal, finished exercise. If the correlation is close between history and English it may be worth the time and effort of the class to present their work in the form of a finished play, with a unified plot and all the needed dialogue. Work of an informal character may serve as the basis for finished plays or

pageants. All the value attaching to this form of exercise may be realized without spending a disproportionate amount of time on those details so dear to the heart of the junior high school pupil who is readily swept off his feet by the enthusiasms of the moment. The illustrations given above were in the nature of informal dramatizations intended to be acted in the classroom in the most informal fashion; that is, without any attempt to learn the lines or to supply stage settings, other than what was immediately available. The best act was made the basis of a final and more finished production. For this purpose the writer associated with him those members of the class who had written about the same episode and drew additional material from their work.

Unless the class is dealing with a fairly comprehensive sweep of history, as, for example, the Protestant Revolt, it is usually wise to confine the dramatization to individual scenes or acts, with little effort to inject unity between them. This was the case with the two "plays" above. Pupils should also be given the option of resolving the episode selected into two or more scenes, as against trying to compress its details into a single picture. They should be urged, however, to confine it to as few scenes as possible.

In the actual construction or building of a drama it is a good plan to have each member of the class prepare a general outline of the whole story to be covered, in which the acts, scenes, characters, time and place are clearly indicated. This is useful in impressing upon the student the succession of events and forcing him to linger long enough upon the outstanding details to call up some kind of a picture of each step or stage in the action. This was the initial step which elicited the work which appears here. The interval between the Persian Wars and the Rise of Macedon was taken as the basis for a five-act play. The class decided that the five great episodes (basing their judgment upon the account found in *Our Ancestors in Europe*) were the Formation of the Delian League, the Building of the Parthenon, the Conquest of Greece by Sparta, the Conquest of Sparta by Thebes, and the Conquest of Greece by Macedon. They then proceeded to analyze the period after the fashion indicated. There is challenge in work of this kind not to overlook what is vital, as it may supply the key to what follows as the work proceeds. The habit of close analysis for dramatic or pictorial value will be gradually fixed and the imagination tremendously stirred. The pupil will begin to be more and more impressed by such imagery as "So the two states sat facing each other across the water, with Sicily like a stepping-stone between them," or "So after her wars in Italy were over and after she had won the first glorious Punic war, Rome, thus pricked in the back, at last faced about and cast her eyes on the East, full of its jealousies and wars."

The student will often ask questions about costumes and setting which cannot be answered in the text. They will often ask for appropriate names to apply to the minor characters in order that they may

impart to their work that sense of reality which makes such an appeal to boys and girls of this age. It has already been pointed out what an incentive a well written textbook may be for work of this kind. The more picturesque and dramatic the style, the more concrete the details, the more successful will be the results of the class.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

The writer has a volume now in the press, "Making History Graphic" (Scribner's, which illustrates the various uses which pupils have made of time lines, charts, cartoons, maps, etc. Much of this work appears in facsimile and in color and, therefore, reveals some of the possibilities of work of this kind. The following chapters in Professor Johnson's "Teaching of History" should be read and re-read in this connection: Making the Past Real (VIII), The Use of Models and Pictures (IX), and The Use of Maps (X). Probably the best presentation of the form and uses of the time chart is to be found in Leaflet No. 50 of the Historical Association (England) by Miss H. M. Madeley. In her "History as a School for Citizenship" appear stimulating, but brief chapters covering the uses of the time chart, picture, etc. She includes several illustrations of the work of English school children in the field of dramatization. See particularly Chapter VII, Fixtures; Chapter VIII, Illustration; Chapter IX, The Young Idea, and pp. 87-106. Two lessons are outlined in some detail involving the use of the picture (pp. 76-82). See article in the February issue for suggestions as to picture material, maps, etc. The Yale University

Press has undertaken to provide a series of books of illustrations paralleling to some extent the Yale Chronicles Series. The Chronicles of America Photo-plays, from the same source, are undoubtedly the best of their kind now available for school use. The fifteen completed plays of the thirty-three which have been planned, are Columbus, Jamestown, Peter Stuyvesant, The Pilgrims, The Puritans, The Gateway to the West, Wolfe and Montcalm, The Eve of the Revolution, The Declaration of Independence, Yorktown, Vincennes, Daniel Boone, The Frontier Woman, Alexander Hamilton and Dixie. The Society for Visual Education (Chicago) also has prepared a number of films for school use, but have not spent a comparable amount of time and money in producing them. Two helpful books on the motion picture are Ellis, D. C., and Thornborough, L., "Motion Pictures in Education: A Practical Handbook for Users of Visual Aids," and Freeman, F. N., "Visual Education: a Comparative Study of Motion Pictures and Other Methods of Instruction." These cover the general use of the film and contain comparatively little of value to the special teacher of history. Two books of exceptional merit in the field of dramatization are Wise, C. M., "Dramatics for School and Community," and Grimbail, E. B., and Wells, R., "Costuming a Play." Taft, Linwood, "Technique of Pageantry," might also be mentioned, but is not as useful, as it is based upon the author's experiences with great community enterprises.

¹ Quoted from Hall, Jennie. "Our Ancestors in Europe." The italics are by the writer of this article.

Builders of Democracy, an Original Historical Pageant

Presented by the Sociology and Advanced United States History Classes of Marshalltown, Iowa, High School

BY R. C. HURD

The above-named pageant, the work of the writer's classes in Sociology and Advanced United States History, was presented at the local athletic field on the night of May 20th, with more than 300 taking part. From beginning to end, excepting one scene, the production was entirely original and was the work of the four classes and their teacher. It was a big project, with many problems to be solved from day to day, but the success of the undertaking justified all the effort that was put into it, not so much because of the mechanical perfection (it required only two hours, with intermissions, to put over the thirty-three scenes), but rather because of the picture of the human element in the history of our country that was stamped so indelibly on the minds of the participants and those who witnessed it. In spite of several postponements, because of unfavorable weather, an audience of more than thirteen hundred people from Marshalltown and surrounding territory was present when the Founders of Jamestown came on the scene,

and in that way some very worth-while extension work was done by representatives of the public schools.

The episodes and scenes of the pageant were as follows:

- Episode 1. Colonial Immigration and Scenes from the War for Independence.
 - Scene 1. The Founding of Jamestown, the First Slaves, and the Cavaliers.
 - Scene 2. The Landing of the Pilgrims.
 - Scene 3. William Penn and the Indians.
 - Scene 4. The Catholics.
 - Scene 5. The French Huguenots.
 - Scene 6. The Scotch-Irish.
 - Scene 7. Oglethorpe and the Debtors.
 - Scene 8. Paul Revere's Ride and the Battle of Lexington.
 - Scene 9. Signing of the Declaration of Independence.
 - Scene 10. The Spirit of '76.
- Episode 2. "Westward Ho," or the Pioneers Conquering the West.
 - Scene 1. Boone, Sevier and Robertson.

- Scene 2. The Lewis and Clark Expedition.
- Scene 3. The "Forty-niners."
- Scene 4. The Homesteaders.
- Scene 5. The Covered Wagon.
- Scene 6. The Cattlemen.
- Scene 7. The Sheepmen.
- Episode 3. Later Immigration.
- Scene 1. The Irish.
- Scene 2. The Germans.
- Scene 3. The Scandinavians.
- Scene 4. The Italians.
- Scene 5. The Jews.
- Scene 6. The Poles.
- Scene 7. The Bohemians.
- Scene 8. The English.
- Scene 9. The Orientals.
- Episode 4. The Products of the Melting Pot.
- Scene 1. The School.
- Scene 2. The Inventors.
- Scene 3. Leaders of Movements.
- Scene 4. Types (Professional men, working man, etc.).
- Scene 5. Statesmen.
- Scene 6. Veterans of Civil, Spanish-American, and World War.
- Scene 7. World Peace.

The Sociology classes had charge of Episodes 1 and 3 and the History classes of 2 and 4. After the project had been discussed several times in each of the classes and the students were convinced that it could be done, several names were suggested, and they were voted on by the classes, a prize being given to the student who suggested the title adopted. The following committees were then chosen by the teacher: Executive, Costume, Property, Music, Finance, and Publicity. Students were named as chairmen, but other teachers were also placed on the various committees and the teacher was an ex-officio member at each one.

The first big problem to be solved was to get the material before the classes. This was solved by assigning the probable topics to be included to various groups in each class, these groups to give orally the results of their research, and also to hand in a written copy for the use of the manuscript committee, from which to mold the pageant book. The Sociology classes were just ready to study the immigration problem, so this supplied a splendid motive for their research. The History classes were just through the Civil War period; hence, some of the materials for the second and fourth episodes were review work, but a review with a definite end in view. As the material was given, much discussion followed in an effort to be sure everything was absolutely accurate, from a historical point of view, to find out just what was essential, and what would be of most interest to the audience. Perhaps the greatest difficulty was experienced in the fourth episode, where the class had to decide which great Americans to introduce. How should they be chosen, what qualifications were to be the basis, what constituted true greatness? These questions provoked much discussion and research and stimulated thinking in the minds of the citizens in the making. The same problem, to a lesser degree, was present in each of the classes.

Individual and group responsibility were encouraged by placing the scenes in each episode in charge of one or more students of the class, having respon-

sibility for it. These individuals or groups were to be accountable for the personnel and action, and, to some extent, the costuming of their particular scene, all, of course, subject to the general approval of the class, which always had the final say. Students were drawn from other social studies classes to fill up the scenes, and, when this failed to produce enough, the student body in general was solicited to take parts. The Sociology class that engineered the Later Immigration episode made a contact that was invaluable to themselves in the selection of members of the night school and their families to portray this important part of the pageant. It happened that the writer had headed up this work for three years and these newest Americans (some were already citizens) and near Americans were easily interested in the project. Students from the class were only lukewarm at the prospect of mixing with these people, for they, like many other native Americans, were somewhat prejudiced against them, but after meeting with them several times and singing the song, "My Own United States," that was being prepared for the whole cast, they became very enthusiastic and changed their ideas about these people and the Americanization problem.

Finding suitable costumes was one of the problems that almost defeated the whole project. They were not to be found for rent at a reasonable figure and the costume committee soon found they had a task. The sewing classes were enlisted to make uniforms for the Red Coats, and many suggestions were made, but nothing definite was accomplished, until we found, in our own city, two women who had had considerable experience in this kind of work, and they were given full authority to get materials, plan, and cut them, make the more difficult ones, and turn the others over to the groups in charge of scenes to make up. Our costume bill was only slightly more than two hundred dollars and the clothes are the property of the school and can be used for future pageants.

The co-operation of all the musical organizations in the school was secured, and the glee clubs, band, and orchestra furnished an indispensable part of the evening's entertainment. Other teachers were also used as assistant directors, property men, etc.

The local athletic field was the scene of the presentation. A stage was laid out two hundred feet wide and seventy-five feet deep, banked in the back and on the sides by tent wall, covered with evergreen branches, with two entrances in front and two in the rear of the stage. Eight powerful lights were mounted on the top of the Franklin school, about one hundred feet above and as far away from the stage. One of these was used as a spotlight and the others were to be used for floodlights. By having so large a stage, and with the lights arranged as they were, it was possible to make the action almost continuous, for three scenes could be prepared at the same time, only one of which would be apparent to the audience.

The whole thing was co-ordinated by several devices. The writer, who directed the performance, was in constant telephone communication with those in charge of the lights, and the pageant book was

read through a huge megaphone, making it possible for not only the audience, but also the musicians and the performers to follow the progress of the action, and the half-dozen rehearsals had taught the student groups their entrance cues, so the whole thing proceeded without a hitch.

Episode one opened with the first settlers coming in at Jamestown, followed by the first negro slaves, who were sold at auction, and closed with the addition of a group of Cavaliers. The Pilgrims were next seen landing, kneeling in prayer, and then exploring the new land. Tableaux were then presented in rapid succession, depicting William Penn's Treaty with the Indians, the Catholics, the French Huguenots, the Scotch-Irish, and Oglethorpe, and the Debtors. The pageant book started Longfellow's poem, "Paul Revere's Ride." The two lanterns gleamed out from the roof of a nearby hospital, and Paul Revere, observing the signal, came thundering down from a far corner of the field in the glare of the spotlight, aroused the sleeping patriots near the entrances and galloped on to Lexington. The Minutemen straggled on to the scene and were soon confronted by the British, who fired upon them and drove them from the field. The local national guard company furnished the "armies."

Episode two opened with a tableau showing Boone and a few followers getting their first glimpse of Kentucky. Flood lights then revealed Lewis and Clark and their party on the way to the Pacific, the "bird woman" at the front, some on foot and others on horses. By the time they had made their exit the Homesteaders were occupying the east half of the stage, the shack in front, the wife in the door, and the children playing around their father, who was hitching up his team to break the first ground on the new claim. The spot was shifted then to the other side, where the "Forty-niners," in the person of two miners, were panning for gold in an imitation creek. Next came two prairie schooners, with plows attached, a cow tied behind one of them, and filled with prospective settlers. Camp was made, a fire was kindled, and they gathered around it to sing "Oh, Susanna." The climax of this act was the last two scenes. First, came in fifteen cattle, attended by cowboys (and what a rush there was to be one of these). The cattle were driven across the stage and off, and were followed immediately by thirty-five sheep in charge of the sheepmen. No sooner had the latter arrived on the scene than the cowboys came back in hot haste at this intrusion of their range, a short parley ensued, and a gun battle was in progress. The sheepmen were defeated and beat a retreat, taking their sheep out the way they had come in, and the second episode was history.

Color, music and rhythm characterized the third part of the pageant. The Irish were the first on the scene, with the "Wearin' of the Green," followed by the Germans in a picnic scene. The Scandinavians of the night school stood in tableau while girls from the Physical Training classes put on a Swedish folk-dance. Next appeared the swarthy Italians, and they gave an Americanized "Sole Mio." The Jewish and Polish were then shown, with only the pageant book

and their clothes to carry them over; the Bohemians entertained with a folk-dance, and an English family was the last tableau. The last scene was a dance by Japanese Geisha girls, with Laborers from both China and Japan coming to the front to show the contrast between the popular conception of Japan and the reality and menace of oriental immigration. The boys and girls' glee clubs sang in all the folk-songs.

Between the third and fourth episodes the scenery at the back of the stage was removed, and, as the stage was flooded with light, the audience beheld the entire cast of the first three episodes standing in mass formation on bleachers, with Miss America in an elevated position in their midst, ready to greet, in their behalf, the Products of the Melting Pot. The Education movement was portrayed by bringing in several leaders and then a group of students in a characteristic song depicting school spirit. As each leader or group came in they paused before Miss America, bowed, and were motioned to a place on either side, where they formed a semi-circle facing the audience. Inventors, Leaders of Movements, and types came in in rapid succession and took their places. The great statesmen, Washington, Lincoln, Roosevelt, and Wilson, took stations on the same platform as Miss America. The great Emancipator came in with much dignity, bowed awkwardly, and went over to the negroes to remove their shackles before he took his place by Washington. The negro educators, Washington, DuBois, and Lawrence Jones (the last named a graduate of the local high school and of the State University of Iowa), then went over and put books in the hands of the newly freed black men. Veterans of the last three wars were then introduced and took their stands in front of all, the whole cast sang the song, "My Own United States," and the pageant ended with a scene picturing world peace and what it would do for the world.

Just a few words about publicity methods might not come amiss to any school that might contemplate a similar pageant. The publicity committee had some stationery printed, wrote articles for the school paper and the city papers, and had charge of all advertising. The students of the classes, and others who wished, used the stationery to invite friends from out of the city, and, in addition to these channels, a ticket-selling contest was staged, in which one energetic booster sold nearly 150 tickets. Our advance sale totaled nearly five hundred dollars. This is an important item, because it cost more than six hundred dollars to stage the production, and quite often this end of a pageant is the one least successful. With the aid of one hundred seventy-five dollars netted from rain insurance, a profit of one hundred twelve dollars resulted, which the classes voted to use for the purchase of books for the social studies library.

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Our Traffic System—A Dramatization

BY NORA M. HARRIS, INDIANA AVENUE SCHOOL, ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY

It is generally conceded that the main business of the public school is to give training in intelligent citizenship that will carry over into adult life. During the present transitional stage in our methods of educational procedure, much has been said and done by individual educators or by groups to accomplish this comprehensive objective. No longer are we attempting to instil into the child ideas of civic virtues by means of formal ethical instruction. Realizing that the pupil is a citizen and that he must assume this responsibility in an intelligent manner, we are endeavoring to base our instruction throughout the grades upon real life situations.

The manner in which the Social Sciences have been so successfully correlated with work in English in our schools is only one proof that every teacher, regardless of the subject taught, can link his material with human relationships, and thus train in right thinking and right acting—essential qualities of good citizenship. Thus, the responsibility of making good citizens of our pupils need not rest upon the history or civics teacher alone.

This report concerns itself with one example of how seventh grade civics teaching was connected with real life situations. In this grade, as no period is set aside for formal civic instruction, each teacher must therefore make his "incidental instruction" as effective as possible. One splendid opportunity came to my four history classes when we were invited to give a dramatization of some phase of our city government at a "Civic Meeting" of our Parent-Teachers' Association. The honor conferred, in being chosen to appear before an adult audience, made the classes realize from the beginning the importance of making a presentation that would be interesting and instructive.

The lines of procedure followed were those of (1) discussing informally the general work of the various departments of our city government; (2) choosing the one making the strongest appeal; (3) selecting committees, of three or five pupils each, to gather material from the library, and to consult the city officials in order to secure accurate and up-to-date information at first hand; (4) hearing the reports of these group workers, and accordingly choosing a topic; (5) permitting volunteer committees to continue the work begun by the first groups, e. g., to see the work actually done at the automobile license bureau, at the headquarters of the Captain of Police, and in the office of the Recorder, where cases of traffic violation are heard; and to secure from the fire chief information concerning changes in the regular traffic rules when fire engines are passing; (6) weighing the values of data collected by the investigating committees and rejecting the irrelevant; (7) giving each pupil, regardless of membership on any committee, opportunity to add his bit by bringing newspaper

reports of accidents, reports of actual court cases of traffic violators and of penalties imposed; by observing the signal lights under varied circumstances; (8) and, finally, the writing of the play. The choosing of characters and their preparation for the presentation were now comparatively easy.

One division of work, namely, traffic regulation, under the Department of Public Safety, one of the five big departments of our commission form of government, was decided upon by the children. The question of making and keeping our city safe for pedestrian and motorist is one receiving the greatest consideration from every agency interested in civic betterment. And, although our city now has the best traffic "block" system in the country, as the pupils were told by authorities, our interest in the welfare of our citizens and visitors and our civic pride demand the hearty co-operation of all in order to maintain a high ideal of efficiency in the protection of life. Therefore, when the pupils presented "Our Traffic System," they were aiding greatly in bringing before a group of about six hundred people, representing "The Public," a valuable lesson in "Safety."

In order to incorporate into one play much of the valuable material collected on the fire department, the police system with its branches—the beach patrol, city patrolmen, the traffic squads, composed of footmen, mounted police, and motorcycle "cops"—and other information pertinent to the subject, a "compromise" was effected by having a dramatization of three scenes. This decision resulted in an original, unselfish, co-operative work as outlined here:

OUR TRAFFIC SYSTEM—A DRAMATIZATION *Introduction*

- Scene I. Securing an Automobile License.
- Scene II. Traffic Officers Receiving Orders from Their Captain.
- Scene III. Traffic Violators Brought Before the Recorder for a Hearing.

PRESENTATION OF OFFICERS

The Introduction contained, in addition to the announcement of the characters, statistics in regard to accidents and other interesting information. The exact questions given at the auto-license bureau to an applicant for a driver's license, the definitions of such terms as "vehicle" and "crossing," and others which he must know were used. Copies of our traffic laws, newspaper reports, "Laws of the People," by Garrison, notes from an officer's Scrap-Book; and reports of actual experiences of acquaintances were deftly woven into the play. Besides this, the characters assumed the names of the persons occupying these same positions in our city. The six traffic officers included three whose duties are at school street intersections.

Since new city traffic ordinances went into effect on the day of our play, these were included in the Captain's directions to his men in the second scene. Bits of humor in the third part made the dramatization more enjoyable; for example, when the reasons given by offenders for various types of traffic violation were often so trivial, but, at the same time, realistic, and also when the Recorder imposed the severest penalties provided by the law.

As a conclusion, the Captain, after thanking the audience for co-operating in "helping us, your public servants—the traffic officers—to make our city safe," said: "And to our city slogan, 'Atlantic City All the Time,' let us add the three big C's—Care, Courtesy, Co-operation!" And then, as a surprise to the audience, she presented three traffic "cops," whose presence there was due to the children's personal invitation. One of these men had recently won the prize presented by the Kiwanis Club to our city's most courteous and most efficient traffic officer. Brief remarks by these invited guests concluded our demonstration.

At this Civic Meeting of the Parent-Teachers' Association we were honored by the presence of a number of prominent citizens, among whom were the Mayor of our city, a member of the Board of Education, and the President of the Chamber of Commerce. The favorable criticism received by the pupils, the fact that the Mayor desired a copy of the questionnaire used in the first scene, the extreme courtesy and consideration shown them when seeking information from the community's officials, all these had much weight in teaching a greater respect for our city government.

That abundant opportunity was offered (1) for cultivating initiative; (2) for fostering a spirit of co-operation; (3) for acquiring a better understanding of community civics; (4) for the development of self-activity; (5) and for vitalizing civics teaching by correlation of the work with real life situations is readily seen. By means of such demonstrations we hope that a more practical, a more patriotic quality of citizenship may be instilled, so that pupils will be an asset to our community now as well as in adult life.

Civics and Banking—An Experiment

BY F. C. ELMER, WEST TECHNICAL HIGH SCHOOL, CLEVELAND, OHIO

This instruction was given to the 12A Civics classes in West Technical High School, Cleveland, Ohio, during the spring term of 1923.

It was done with the assistance of the officers of the local chapter of the American Institute of Banking. Speakers were furnished by the Institute. They were men who had had experience in banking and were also good speakers.

The lectures on banking came once each week, covering a period of ten weeks. The subjects of the

ten lectures were: The General Idea of a Bank; The Bank Check; Loaning the Bank's Money; Character—The Basis of Bank Credit; Why a Corporate Trustee; The Bank and Your Investments; Our Relations and the Bank's Relations With the Rest of the World; The Relationship of Farmer and Banker; Relation of the Bank to the Federal Reserve System; Analysis of a Simple Bank Statement.

Outlines of the lectures were furnished to the teachers in charge of the work by the Institute. These outlines were mimeographed and placed in the pupils' hands one week before the lecture. From the outline the pupils quickly saw what subjects or topics they understood and what subjects or topics needed explanation.

During the week each pupil was furnished with a mimeographed sheet, which was divided into two parts. The upper part of the sheet was headed "Topics which I understand." Under these the pupils listed the topics with which they were familiar. The lower half of the sheet was headed "Topics which I want explained." Under these were listed the subjects which needed explanation. These sheets were given to the speaker several days before his lecture, so that he might get a cross-grained view of the pupils' needs. The point to this differentiation was that the speaker knew banking, but he did not know the teaching process.

This method was found to be practical and assisted in the conduct of the course.

The pupils were compelled to keep notebooks, which were regularly inspected. During the week the material presented by the speaker was brought up for classroom discussion.

At the end of the series of lectures a written test, submitted by the officials of the local banks, was given each pupil. The following are the questions:

1. How is a bank organized?
2. Why are banks needed?
3. (a) What are time deposits?
(b) What are demand deposits?
4. Give three advantages of carrying a checking account at the bank.
5. What does a bank require of a customer before it will make him a loan?
6. Why is it advisable to appoint a trust company or a bank rather than a person as executor, administrator, guardian, or trustee?
7. How can your bank help you in investing your money?
8. Describe at least two of the services which a Foreign Department renders?
9. What are some of the benefits derived from the Federal Reserve System?

Over 80 per cent. of the pupils made a creditable grade.

In the spring of 1924 the course was extended to include Cleveland's twelve senior high schools. To the writer this is an important step in connecting book study and classroom work with the world in which the pupil lives.

National Council for the Social Studies

MEETINGS AT INDIANAPOLIS, JULY 2, 3, 1925

President: Howard C. Hill, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago.

Secretary: Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City.

THURSDAY, JULY 2d

General Theme: How Teachers of the Social Studies Can Interpret the Schools to the Community.

1. Opportunities for Teachers of History to Interpret the Schools to the Community.

Arthur Dondineau, Assistant Director in Charge of Supervision, Detroit Public Schools, Detroit.

2. What Teachers of Civics Can Do to Interpret the Schools to the Community.

W. H. Shephard, Board of Education, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

3. Contributions of Teachers of Economics to the Interpretation of the Schools.

4. Opportunities of Teachers of Sociology to Interpret the Schools to the Public.

Open Discussion.

FRIDAY, JULY 3d

General Theme: Training of Teachers of the Social Studies.

1. The Preparation of Teachers of the Social Studies in the Field Today.

P. W. Hutson, School of Education, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

2. What Teacher-Training Colleges Are Doing to Prepare Prospective Teachers of the Social Studies.

Ned H. Dearborn, Commonwealth Fund, New York City.

3. What Training Teachers of the Social Studies Should Have.

H. C. Morrison, Superintendent of the Laboratory Schools, University of Chicago, Chicago.

Open Discussion.

Teachers of History or other Social Studies

No one has a list of the organizations of those who teach history and the other social studies. There is a constant call for such a list. It can be compiled and kept up to date if a few people will spend one cent each and a few minutes of time. *Don't leave someone else to do it; do it yourself.*

Please answer the questions listed below, giving information about every group, association, or society that you know of. If you cannot send it all, send as much as you can. If it is obtained, the list will be published in THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK in the autumn.

What is the name of the group?

About how many members has it?

When does it meet?

The name and address of such officers as you know?

EDGAR DAWSON,

Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies.

Hunter College, New York City.

German Historians on War Guilt

The Association of German Historians at its meeting at Frankfort-on-Main on 3 October, 1924, in connection with an address by Geheimrat Professor Eric Brandenburg, of the University of Leipzig, on "The Causes of the World War," adopted a resolution, the text of which I am taking the liberty to send out for circulation.

DR. GEORGE KUNTZEL,

Prof. of History at the University of Frankfort and Pro tem. Chairman of the Association.

The German Association of Historians Resolves:

The question of the guilt or responsibility for the World War of particular people, countries, parties or individuals can only be scientifically determined after the opening of the archives of the powers who took part in the war and upon a thorough and methodical study of the sources.

The answering of this question on the basis of documents emanating from the diplomats of the victorious powers is a monstrosity heretofore never essayed in world history.

The enforced signature to the confession of guilt in article 231 of the Versailles Treaty is of no consequence whatever in determining the historic truth in the matter.

Frankfort A. M., 3 October, 1924.

Middle States Association

The preliminary announcements of the annual spring meeting of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland have been issued. They indicate the following places and events:

1. Friday afternoon, May 1, in Philadelphia, a discussion of "Citizenship Training," with papers by Mr. Frank A. Rexford, of New York City Public High Schools, and by Miss Frances Morehouse, of Teachers College, Columbia University. An informal discussion will be led by Mr. Edwin W. Adams, of the Philadelphia Normal School, and Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, of the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction.

2. Friday evening, May 1, a subscription dinner at one of the Philadelphia hotels.

3. Saturday morning, May 2, at Bryn Mawr College. A discussion of "The Purposes and Possibilities of Orientation Courses in Colleges," with papers by Prof. Harry J. Carman, of Columbia University, and Prof. George Boas, of Johns Hopkins University.

4. Saturday noon. A luncheon tendered to the Association by the President of Bryn Mawr College.

5. Saturday afternoon. An historical excursion.

The final program, with further details, can be obtained from the Secretary, Miss Lena C. Van Bibber, 129 E. North Ave., Baltimore, Md.

Notes on Periodical Literature

BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

In the April *World's Work* Raymond Reouly gives some sidelights on present-day conditions in France in his article, "Can Caillaux Return to Power?" "The essential factor in this situation," he says, "is the alliance between the radicals and socialists....This alliance has endured until now in spite of all the difficulties and obstacles it has met.... The day when this alliance ceases....a certain number of the present opposition can....unite with the radicals. This union will be formed around....some leader." The obstacles which M. Caillaux must overcome before he is accepted as this leader form the gist of this article.

The April *Forum* has a series of most illuminating imaginary conversations between Aaron Burr and some well-known contemporaries, by Gamaliel Bradford; it also publishes Prof. Bruno Rosselli's "Resurrecting a Forgotten City," an account of Septis Magna.

The account of "Oslo, Norway's Rebaptized Capital," by Bjarne Bunkhold, traces the history of the city from the Middle Ages to the present day. (*Current History* for April 2d.)

"China in Evolution" is discussed at length in the March number of *The Round Table*. "The struggle now in progress is of importance mainly because it is a symptom of the malady of China....A sense of restlessness....reflects the growing pains of a static and isolated civilization....The disruptive influences of the West on China are....the new demagogic idea of government, the weakening of traditional discipline largely as a result of ill-digested Western education, the use of force as a factor in government, the privileges of the foreign resident and trader and the necessity on the part of the foreign Powers of bolstering up some sort of central Government, which can be held responsible for the service of the foreign debt and other international obligations."

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

The History of Art and the History of Civilization

History of Art. By Elie Faure. Trans. by Walter Pach. Vols. II-IV. Harper and Brothers, New York, 1922-1924. 433, 401, 517 pp. \$7.50 a vol.

History of Art. By H. B. Cotterill. F. A. Stokes Co., New York, 1923-24. 2 volumes. 442, 566 pp. \$10.00.

The History of Art. By G. Carotti. E. P. Dutton & Company, New York, 1923. 3 vols. 420, 375, 365 pp. \$3.00 a vol.

Apollo. By S. Reinach. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1924. 350 pp. \$2.00.

The Outline of Art. Edited by Sir William Orpen. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1923-1924. 2 volumes. 231, 491 pp. \$4.50 a vol.

A Primer of Modern Art. By Sheldon Cheney. Boni and Liveright, New York, 1924. 383 pp. \$6.00.

Masters of Modern Art. By Walter Pach. B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1924. 118 pp. \$3.50.

A History of Ornament, Renaissance and Modern. By T. D. F. Hamlin. Century Co., New York, 1925. 521 pp. \$5.00.

The Nature, Practice and History of Art. By H. Van Buren Magonigle. Chas. Scribner's Sons, New York, 1924. 319 pp. \$2.50.

The Appreciation of Art. By Eugen Neuhaus. Ginn and Company, Boston, 1924. 250 pp. \$3.00.

The "New History," as it appears in manuals and textbooks, continually tends toward a richer content and more ambitious synthesis. In the broadening process the economic factor has loomed largest, industry and the practical arts are emphasized, the changing fashions in thought and opinion receive growing attention, but literature and the fine arts are still treated scantily and inadequately and left in the main to separate courses under instructors with specialized technical interests. The study of the fine arts is still in the main vocational, whereas it might be cultural in the best sense of the word. In connection with the "social studies" it might well receive more attention, preferably in direct correlation with studies in appreciation offered by specialists in the fine arts, for the possibilities are great if we had the wit and taste and skill to realize them. Architecture, sculpture, painting, music, literature, the part they play and the esteem in which they are held, may be at least as characteristic of a people or an age as are philosophies, industries, governmental forms, or social customs. The development of the fine arts is a significant and colorful strand in the seamless web of history.

America, preoccupied with the exploitation of its vast natural resources, has been slow to develop artistic interest or appreciation or encouragement of the artist, but in recent years there are many signs of a new era, in the graphic and plastic arts as in literature and criticism. The subject is more frequently noticed in the better periodicals and newspapers, the number of public galleries and exhibitions and of private collections is growing, the available prints of paintings and sculpture become more numerous and varied, and despite the silly and wholly inartistic "picture studies" that continue in the popular teachers' magazines, there are signs of more intelligence and better taste in dealing with art in the schools. But the most obvious sign of growing interest is the surprising number of books on the fine arts that have poured from the presses during the past three or four years. And it is a striking fact that many of these books definitely attempt to relate the history of art to the history of civilization. M. Faure, in the most ambitious of the works here considered, explicitly calls his four-volume treatise "An Outline of Civilization."

Messrs. Neuhaus and Magonigle, the former a professor of art in the University of California, the latter a New York architect of excellent standing, each offers an introductory manual for youthful students or the general reader. Mr. Magonigle attempts to cover too much ground. About one-third of his volume is devoted to the nature and practice of art, the remainder to a rapid sketch of art history. The first is far superior to the second. The four chapters on the technique of architecture, sculpture, painting and "other vehicles of expression" are particularly helpful in supplying in simple form information that the layman cannot find so conveniently elsewhere. A chapter on the qualities common to all art tells very briefly about design, proportion, balance, pattern contrast, and the like. The style is simple and usually personal in tone. The historical portion of the book is deplorably unsatisfactory. The author holds the interesting and promising thesis that "art is a positive index of the character of races, nations, individuals, and epochs," yet not only is he too facile and sweeping in his positive statements of causal relations, but his background of general history is distorted and inaccurate. For instance, his notions about the breakup of the Roman Empire and the nature of the Renaissance are obsolete among students of social history, and the "general" list in his bibliography (in which all the titles are given without date or place and other important details) indicates a dependence upon such works as Carlyle's *French Revolution* and Michelet's *Modern History*. The characterizations of artists and schools are highly condensed, dogmatic, often perfunctory or dubious; for example, in the cases of Giotto, Gainsborough, or the Pre-Raphaelite group (a small dictionary definition, p. 299), or of El Greco, whose work is lauded by the modernist schools but summarily dismissed by Mr. Magonigle as "astigmatic and contorted crudities." Post-Impressionist art is practically ignored. The numerous illustrations, more than a hundred, are a useful feature.

Professor Neuhaus has set himself a more modest but sufficiently important task, and has done it well. Desiring to promote the critical enjoyment of art through a discovery of the qualities that constitute beauty and give esthetic pleasure, and to ascertain "the social and economic forces that are active in the domain of art, he conducts the inquiry through many concrete examples, chiefly painting and sculpture, but also other fields, including textiles, metal work, furniture, and interior decoration. Composition and design, balance, rhythm, unity, color, etc., the classification of the arts, "imitation or interpretation," idealism versus realism, technical methods and qualities, the nude in Greek and modern art, art patronage, and the place of art in education are among the chapter subjects. The style is simple and direct, the spirit is temperate and the interest catholic, there is understanding and appreciation for varied schools, and nearly a hundred excellent illustrations supplement the text. This little volume is a valuable preliminary to the study of art history as well as first aid in art appreciation.

For more than twenty years Salaman Reinach's *Apollo*, "an illustrated manual of the history of art throughout the ages," translated from the French into most of the languages of Europe, has enjoyed the widest recognition as a complete and reliable outline. Too compact an epitome to be interesting for reading, the little volume is invaluable as a study outline or for quick reference. The illustrations are small but numerous. In the present edition the bibliographies have been revised and the text retouched a little with special reference to bringing it down to date, but recent art is still very scantily recognized.

M. Elie Faure's extended treatise, regarded by some enthusiasts as the first real history of art in a comprehensive sense, is a really remarkable performance. Its four

volumes, devoted respectively to Ancient, Medieval, Renaissance, and Modern Art, covering Europe, Asia and America, represent a most impressive range and depth of scholarship. The variety of subjects treated is very extensive, and at the same time the author continually strives to show us the art in relation to social settings; his theme is "the development of man as revealed by art." His studies have included the history of thought and philosophy, of institutions, of religion, of music, of literature. In general he seems free of special prejudices and easily capable of appreciating a great variety of artistic forms and subjects, although in the treatment of recent art he does unduly emphasize the French, outstanding though they are for the period, while neglecting some significant work of Russia and America.

Although brilliantly suggestive and stimulating in his interpretation of the relation of art to general culture, M. Faure must be read with caution. He is entirely too sure and usually too simple in the explanation of connections that are complex and elusive. He indulges in a kind of social psycho-analysis. Often he forgets that the same surroundings produce at different times artists of widely different character, and so is led to overemphasize the geographic factor. Yet withal he does make a brave and penetrating effort to relate art to general culture, for which we may well be thankful, even though we should think better of him if he now and then frankly admitted that some of his theories are highly dubious and that some problems are unsolved and perhaps insoluble. M. Faure's style is florid, rhapsodical. The tremendous success of so large and expensive a work indicates that this style is widely enjoyed, but the unrelieved eloquence, the unvarying rhetoric, the endless passages of highly colored verbiage, must certainly prove wearying to some readers. After a time it comes to seem strained and febrile, and loses its effect, too, because it is impartially employed for all times and periods and artists, great and small. At the end of each volume there are synoptic tables arranged by countries and centuries, with detailed lists of names and dates, a feature that is doubly valuable because of the character of the text, into and out of which an artist glides on the verbal tide with little of definite, tangible, localized fact. In short, the author frankly gives us a prose poem in four volumes.

In the closing passage of his last volume M. Faure refers to the "audacity of the Americans in erecting monstrous utilitarian constructions which shatter all known styles, in the brutal rush toward the sky of their metal framework, and in their continual effort to rise higher above the cities...."

"Here are the tall chimneys like temple columns, the living animals of steel, with a heart, intestines, nerves, eyes, limbs, iron bones articulated like a skeleton, the turning, the sliding, the mathematical coming and going of belts, of pulleys, of connecting rods, and of pistons; here are the rigid roads shining, and extending, and intersecting to infinity, and the silent round of astronomical cupolas following the movement of the skies; here are the giant halls, and the bare façades of the factories, cathedrals dedicated to the cruel god who knows no other law than that of unbounded production....All that is clear cut, without ornament, trenchant, categorical, and having the purity and the innocence of the function—indifferent to good, to evil, and to morality—of the function which is being born, endowed with an appetite which is fierce, insatiable, and joyous."

The illustrations are numerous and selected with fine discrimination, but too many of them are small, and considering the price asked, some of them might well be printed in color.

Mr. Cotterill is a thorough scholar and a critic of judgment and taste, but his style, in marked contrast to that of M. Faure, is easy, simple, and direct. He supplies plenty of definite facts in a well-ordered narrative, and criticism that is clear and discriminating, without extravagance or rhapsody. Architecture, sculpture, and painting

are treated with impartial fullness, while there is judicious omission of names and data of minor importance that might obstruct the story without sufficient compensatory gains. The first volume covers the period from the ancient Near East to the age of Raphael; the second, with its chapters grouped by nations, and including several on the sculpture and painting of the Far East, goes only as far as 1820 or 1830. It is unfortunate that the narrative should stop at a point so artistically remote from today, thus omitting entirely the work of the Impressionists and Post Impressionists, concerning whose hotly debated theories and practices it would be interesting to have Mr. Cotterill's calm summary and critique. The chapters on England and the Far East were contributed by Mr. Stewart Dick, a lecturer at the National Museum in London, the author being unable to finish his task. There is a wealth of excellent illustrations of large size in half-tone, nearly 650 reproductions of paintings, sculpture, and architectural subjects.

The History of Art by Dr. Giulio Carotti, professor in the Royal Academy of Fine Arts in Milan, which now appears in a revised edition (Vol. III for the first time in English), has long been recognized as a standard outline for the period covered—from primitive man to the thirteenth century A. D. The volumes are of handy pocket size: I covers the ancient period and has been revised by Mrs. Arthur Strong; II deals with early Christian art, the Neo-Oriental, and European north of the Alps; III deals with Italian art in the Middle Ages. Architecture, sculpture, painting, decoration, and industrial arts are treated, providing an outline sketch or conspectus similar to Reinach's *Apollo*, but with the greater fullness made possible by the three volumes devoted to the periods before modern times. There are about 1300 small but clear half-tone illustrations.

Sir William Orpen's *Outline of Art*, continuing the series of "Outlines" of Science, Literature, etc., doubtless suggested by Mr. Wells' *Outline of History*, is misnamed, since it treats only of painting since the Middle Ages. The work is evidently intended to be popular in character,—in story, style, and illustration, though fortunately it does not degenerate into the cheaper sentimentality and fine writing. It is very readable with plenty of anecdote and interesting personal detail, and with criticism of a simple and untechnical character. This instructive and entertaining survey is deplorably marred by provincialism, British art being overemphasized, rather absurdly in some cases (e. g., the attention to official artists of the late war), with undue restriction of attention to Russia, the United States, recent Germany, and even France, so pre-eminent in the modernist movement. Even if the work had been intended exclusively for British readers, it should have been frankly local or else have observed a due sense or proportion and relative critical values. The illustrations, though not beyond reproach, are very numerous, large and clear, and include a number of subjects in color. The work will doubtless interest many readers who would not attempt such treatises as those of Faure and Cotterill.

To Messrs. Cheney and Pach, "Modern Art" belongs to the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Their books are devoted to the same general theme as are such volumes as Clive Bell's *Since Cezanne* and Jan Gordon's *Modern French Painters*. It is hardly necessary to remark that "modernism" involves all the fine arts, including music and literature, and is a subject controversial in the highest degree. This is particularly true of Post Impressionist painting, with its varied styles and canvases that are masterpieces to one observer and crazy freaks to another. Mr. Cheney, considering not only painting, but the arts in general, decoration, costuming, the theatre, and industrial arts, strives to interpret the modern movements and to relate them to modern life. His style is personal, not to say colloquial, and seeks the cleverness and pointedness so much valued in current journalism. He argues that artists in the past have been enslaved to photography, that "art has all but died of good taste," that we have valued too highly artists who are little more than competent illus-

trators, that "emotional expressiveness" is the great fundamental of true art. Art, it seems, should be utterly divorced from representation and seek a kind of pure and disembodied beauty of line and color. It is now generally recognized that the Impressionists made technical contributions, at least, of the greatest importance, and artists generally have ceased to value greatly the merely pictorial and photographic. But the extremes of recent schools are another matter. Mr. Cheney has certainly written an entertaining and suggestive account, but it is questionable how many converts it will make for what are still generally regarded as the extravagances of the new art. The 175 illustrations present one of the most interesting graphic exhibits of the new art, but color plays so large a part in the effects sought by that art that every reader will regret that the publishers did not include in the *Primer* at least a few examples in color, which should have been possible at the price asked.

Mr. Pach has by no means written a *Primer*. M. Faure, whose work he has translated, pronounces the *Masters of Modern Art* a book of the highest merit, saying that he knows of nothing "more luminous, nothing simpler and stronger, in the critical literature of our time." Readers who are without some previous knowledge of the field may not find it luminous or simple. The word "master" is reserved only for those who have the creative power to give a new direction to art. He holds that the modernists are natural and legitimate successors of the great masters of earlier times, forming a part of one continuous development. Cezanne and Gauguin and others gave much more emphasis to self-expression; their followers more and more dropped out the element of representation and devoted themselves to pure self-expression. With much less of missionary zeal and with more reserve and dignity than Mr. Cheney, Mr. Pach traces his story from the French Revolution to the present with a soundness of scholarship that leaves little room for question as to facts while issues of taste and interpretation of course appear constantly. He limits himself more to French painting than his title justifies, neglecting Americans even in his bibliography. There are 36 full-page illustrations in sequence at the back of the book, with 13 pages of notes, conveniently numbered, to accompany them.

The history of ornament has been much less written about than many other phases of art. Professor Hamlin's *A History of Ornament: Ancient and Medieval*, which appeared in 1917, has had a recognized place as a standard work; the present volume, dealing with Renaissance and Modern ornament, completes the story, though it is an independent volume. It sketches "the general historic movement of the arts of decoration; the genesis, evolution, and succession of the various styles that have prevailed"; and attempts "to analyze, describe, and illustrate them in such fashion that the reader may be led to an intelligent understanding of their character and some mastery of their dominant characteristics." The author has carried out his aims with clarity and authority.

G.

Government

The Political Parties of Today. By Arthur N. Holcombe. Harper and Brothers, 1924. viii, 399 pp. \$3.00.

"Empty bottles." This term, applied to our major political parties, might be counted a sufficiently effective Jeremiad, especially since the Eighteenth Amendment lent peculiar color to the expression. But Professor Holcombe, in his instructive study, declines to accept this figure of speech quoted by him from Mr. Samuel Blythe. He prefers to think of our major political parties as two streams "pursuing courses which the flowing waters cannot greatly alter, now bearing upon their surface cargoes of goods and companies of men, now stopping in their flight to moisten a field, that agriculture may flourish, now rushing to turn a wheel, that industry may prosper." And perhaps the author's figure is better; for a party, like a stream, does not usually change its course except in flood time, and a party, like a stream, may dry up, though, if one may

trust the laments issuing from that thirsty throng dwelling in Washington, D. C., Mt. Pleasant, Texas, and other desert places, the dry bed of the stream is no more effective figure for a Jeremiad than is an empty bottle.

Professor Holcombe sets out with the prefatory assurance that his intent is not to "propose" anything, but merely to "expose." In most respects, he realizes this intent. His historical survey of both the major and the minor parties is sweeping enough, and yet pointed enough, to expose in a quite useful form the background of current politics. His explanation of the reasons for our continuing to have two major parties, not seriously threatened by any minor party, shows a convincing ability to expose the constitutional limitations which narrow the range of possible issues, and the sectional economic interests which make it necessary for a national party to evade most of these possible issues. Finally, his analyses of various presidential elections, supported by numerous statistical studies of the centers of Republican strength, those of Democratic strength, and those of doubtful devotion, show why the parties attach so much importance to the task of winning doubtful territory, and why they frequently make their platforms, devoted mainly to the winning of such doubtful sections, so much alike. In these analyses, the author almost convinces one that the national parties, whether they be empty bottles or rushing streams, must, in presidential campaigns, appear to be very much alike.

Perhaps Professor Holcombe is still only trying to reveal the major political sentiments of the country, when he suggests the possibility of an agrarian party, or a farmer-labor party, supplanting one of the present great parties; though with regard to the possibility of a successful farmer-labor party he would find a sharp division of opinion among both farmers and industrial laborers. But when he writes that the bi-partisan system, "with all its compromises and confusing of purpose, is inevitable under our present form of government," it appears that

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he is falling into the rôle of an oracle, or else that he "proposes" the continuance of the bi-partisan system for the good of our social order. And the feeling that he does show, albeit perhaps unconsciously, a decided preference for the bi-partisan system, is strengthened by his declaration, near the end of his closing chapter, that "the amount of social strife which the parties tend to conciliate far outweighs that which they foment." Such proposals, however, as may be veiled in the author's conclusions, do not seriously lower the value of his study of the background and present workings of party politics in the United States.

But accepting Professor Holcombe's account of the meticulous evasion of issues and shy espousal of ambiguous causes characteristic of our major parties, one may well insist that a better figure than either bottles or streams could be found to describe the two parties in question. Let there be pictured a ship (the proverbial ship of state), on which two pilots, neither having more than the slightest conception of where the port lies, are fighting for possession of the wheel. The minor parties would then be apprentice pilots, some crying "Lo, this way to prosperity"; others demanding "Full speed astern to the millennium"; and still others insisting that the squabbling pilots, along with the captain and the crew, be tossed into the brine.

J. P. WATSON.

Robert Browning Graduate School of Economics,
Washington, D. C.

New Governments of Central Europe. By Malbone W. Graham, Jr., assisted by Robert C. Binkley. Henry Holt and Co., New York, 1924. viii, 683 pp. \$4.00.

The author of this well-written and exceedingly useful volume has limited himself to a consideration of the governments of the German Reich, the Austrian Republic, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and Yugoslavia. It is to be hoped that a forecast in his preface of similar volumes dealing with the succession states of the Russian and Ottoman Empires will soon be realized. To prepare the reader, there are brief interpretative surveys of those anomalous compromises between autocracy and representative government which occupied Middle Europe prior to the war. Then an account of the establishment of each of the succession states is given, an analysis of its system of government, and a narrative of the party struggles which have attended its history thus far. The texts of the new constitutions are not included. Part two of the volume, however, consists of the texts (144 in all) of the most important documents bearing upon the constitutional and political history of the new governments. Thus we have not a duplication of, but rather a useful companion volume to the work of Professors McBain and Rogers on the new constitutions of Europe.

In the arrangement of material, especial pains have been taken to assist the reader. A topical analysis precedes each chapter, and the source of the text of each document is indicated. There is also a detailed index to the volume. A useful feature is the inclusion of a "time chart" for each country, giving a chronological summary of the period under review, and showing in graphic form the shifting alignment and strength of parties in political systems undergoing a rapid process of evolution.

The author has made available in a single volume a mass of data beyond the reach of most students, and relieved others more favorably situated of many tedious hours. Among the documents are several projects of government which mark crucial stages, yet because of their ephemeral nature would not be found in a formal collection of constitutions. Similarly, the party manifestoes have a vitality which does not attach to ordinary campaign platforms, in addition to their interest for students of contemporary political theory. Of recent books on comparative government and politics, Professor Graham's work should be of more than transitory value, for he covers a definite period in the evolution of the

countries concerned, and probably considerable time will elapse before additional disclosures will supersede his material.

A. GORDON DEWEY.

Columbia University.

Non-Voting. By C. E. Merriam and H. F. Gosnell. The University of Chicago Press, 1924. xvi, 287 pp. \$1.60.

The fact that only about one-half of the eligible voters of the country take the trouble to vote has long been the subject of public discussion. The topic has received considerable attention from social scientists, reformers, fourth of July orators, and "Voters' Leagues." Drives to "get out the vote" have become a common characteristic of election campaigns. Reasons and causes for the failure of citizens to vote have also been discussed at length on the basis of casual observation and rationalization. But until the appearance of the present interesting study by two members of the political science department of the University of Chicago, no quantitative inquiry has been published regarding the environmental conditions, composition, and attitudes of non-voting elements in our population.

To the sociologist and the political scientist, perhaps the most interesting part of this book is that which deals with the methodology of the study, although this is also the part most open to criticism. From the scientific point of view, the fairly complete details as to the methods of procedure deserve special commendation. Not that there is anything strikingly new in this methodology or any startling applications of statistical method to the phenomena of non-voting. In fact, with respect to the sampling method employed, more complete details would have been valuable. For example, the validity of the sample with respect to the economic condition of the non-voting group is not clear from the details given. But in presenting a reasonably full statement of their method, the authors have added much to the critical reader's appreciation of the results. The shortcomings of the study, such as the fact that it is confined to a single election in Chicago, that it makes inadequate consideration of the total composition of the population and the motives of those who do vote, are frankly recognized and consequently no unwarranted conclusions are drawn. A valuable appendix entitled "Suggestions as to Procedure in Future Studies of Non-Voting," based on the author's experiences and difficulties in their work, still further enhances the practical value of the study.

To the general reader, the findings of this inquiry will be found both interesting and illuminating. Those who regard non-voting as a failing confined to the so-called lower classes will find from this study that such is by no means the case, though the reasons for not voting vary considerably in different economic areas. The prominence of physical difficulties as a cause of non-voting is also a matter of interest. Illness and absence account for over one-fourth of all the failures to vote. Residence requirements and fear of loss of business and wages account for the failure of an additional ten per cent. About eight per cent. of the women abstained on account of a disbelief in woman's participation in political affairs. General inertia—indifference, neglect, ignorance and timidity—account for the failure of about forty-five per cent. to exercise the franchise. In addition to these statistical results, the case studies of individual non-voters and their reactions to the question of voting, are both interesting and entertaining.

But although the questions directly dealt with in this book are of interest, there are questions suggested by it which lie deeper and are of more far-reaching significance. For example, the thoughtful mind cannot help but reflect further on a question which the authors raise quite incidentally in the opening chapter: "If one hundred per cent. had voted, would the outcome be any different from the result when sixty per cent. voted?" (p. 23). And if the participation of a larger number would have changed

the result, have we any reason to believe that the change would be in the direction of a more intelligent expression of opinion? There is unfortunately no reason for such belief. The fact is that the inertia which today accounts for the bulk of non-voting is the expression of a fundamental weakness in the theory underlying the belief in the efficacy of the popular vote as a desirable method of dealing with the majority of present problems which come before the electorate. The futility of expecting the average citizen to be informed, and hence able to pass intelligently on the great variety of issues which are today put up to him for solution, must be obvious even to the casual student. The present inert mass which is the object of "get out the vote" campaigns, exists as legitimate raw material for whatever party may possess the resources and the desire to purchase it and convert it into votes. When we have solved the problem of non-voting, therefore, we would probably be as far as ever from intelligent guidance in public affairs through the voters, as long as we expect of them an impossible task.

The technique of securing a more general exercise of the franchise is a legitimate subject for political scientists to deal with in common with other administrative machinery. But there is a danger that we may come to look upon such matters as in themselves the solution of problems lying much deeper. The difficulty of intelligent contact between the average citizen and the removed environment, acquaintance with which is absolutely essential to intelligent opinion, is such as to call for the abandonment of the theory of the omniscient citizen. Under this theory, democracy has justly been defined as the form of government based on the theory that skill is not required in the management of public affairs. In fact, our reliance on the popular vote as an infallible guide to the solution of our social problems is not unlike the faith of the Greeks in their oracles. The simplification of the rôle of the citizen through reliance on experts for the performance of an increasing number of the functions now devolving upon the voter must be the real solution. With a simpler task to perform, its performance may come to have some meaning to those who are expected to perform it, and where it does not have such meaning, it is questionable whether any useful public purpose is served by inducing the non-interested element to function in this capacity.

GEORGE A. LUNDBERG.

University of Washington.

Those who desire to understand the actual workings of our government and who are not satisfied with the formal descriptions of the usual civics book, will profit from reading *Our Governmental Machine*, by Schuyler C. Wallace, with an introductory note by Charles A. Beard. The author, who is more interested in fundamental governmental processes and relationships than in theorizing about governmental machinery, discusses four outstanding problems: popular control, the legal frame of government, law making, and the executive and administrative. Throughout the volume he uses the Socratic method to good advantage. (Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1924; xiv, 220 pp.)

The most important aspects of present day political thought have been set forth in simple outline form by Mr. C. E. M. Joad in his *Introduction to Modern Political Theory*. A chapter is devoted to each of the following: the idealist theory of the state, modern individualism, socialism, with special reference to collectivism, syndicalism and guild socialism, communism and anarchism and problems of socialist theory. Socialism is stressed at the expense of individualism and the absolutist theory of the state largely because the former, the author tells us, is the tendency prevalent in political theory today. This little volume should prove very useful to those who desire a non-technical discussion of this subject. Selected chapter bibliographies are appended. (Oxford University Press, American Branch, New York, 1924; 123 p., \$1.00.)

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PHILADELPHIA

The American Revolution and the Making of the Constitution

The Constitution of the United States; an Historical Survey of its Formation. By Robert Livingston Schuyler. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923. 211 pp. \$1.50.

There is an ancient jest about Episcopalians which says that whatever may be their degree of spirituality, they are always well dressed. Dr. Schuyler's little book is exceedingly well dressed.

In it he has given an account, clear, scholarly and very well written, of the origin, preparation and adoption of our Constitution. The work contains the substance of the lectures given by Dr. Schuyler at Cambridge University and the London School of Economics during the summer of 1921. For Englishmen, the treatment must have been wholesome in the extreme.

And we all owe gratitude to the friends of the author who persuaded him to publish. The book is a capital summary of the labors of earlier investigators, of Bancroft, Fiske, Beard, Libby, Farrand and the rest, carefully checked from the sources,—the dross discarded and the wheat retained. Dr. Schuyler has undoubtedly given us the best short reference work on the formation of the Constitution.

For those, teachers and otherwise, who have not added to their information in this field since their own college days, there will be much that is vital. They will be especially enlightened by Dr. Schuyler's handling of the old myth of "the Three Compromises," and by the justice (partial, at least) with which he treats the Anti-Federalists.

But, on the other hand, to the student fairly familiar with the sources and more recent commentaries, Dr. Schuyler's work is not especially provocative of thought. It shoots from no new slant; it raises no new challenge. It belongs to the class of writing so judicious and well-balanced that nobody will be much excited over it.

The merit of holding fairly the middle ground the work possesses in a high degree. One is relieved that it is not a pious encomium of the inspired wisdom of our system of government; one is not aroused to repel insinuations against the honor of the Fathers.

But to throw more light on a subject like the adoption of the Constitution is vouchsafed to few. What our author really undertook, he has done exceedingly well. And the more one reflects upon the book, the more its real value breaks upon the mind. One thinks of it like the Indian, who, in pointing out another savage of repute, said, "He Injun! He big Injun! He big, heap Injun! He damn, big, heap Injun! He Jones!"

E. P. TANNER.

Syracuse University.

The Colonial Background of the American Revolution. By Charles M. Andrews. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1924. x, 218 pp. \$2.50.

Students of American history, and particularly those who are prone to accept the time-honored ultranationalistic conception of the American Revolution will find this volume most stimulating and thought-provoking. In the four essays of about equal length, which comprise the book, Professor Andrews attempts to explain and to interpret the Revolution in terms of the varied relationship of the colonies to Great Britain. In the first essay, entitled "The British Colonies in America," he points out that the leading features of our colonial history were expansion and centralization. He also emphasizes the fact that at the outset the mother country was without a colonial policy or even a precedent for one, and that distance and environment were responsible for many misunderstandings. The colonists, he maintains, never deliberately denied the authority of Parliament prior to 1765. The second essay, "The Mother Country and Its Colonial Policy," traces in some detail the changing international situation which Britain

faced between 1688 and 1763 and the evolution of a definite colonial policy based on a purely mercantilistic doctrine. In the third essay, "Conditions Leading to the Revolt of the Colonies," he stresses the significance of the change in British policy which began to take place in 1763. He labels the years 1770-1774 as the critical period of the pre-Revolutionary struggle and shows how during these years the moderates and radicals struggled for control.

The last essay, entitled "General Reflections," is in many respects most important of all, for it contains an admirable summary of the influences which in the past have governed and which at present characterize much of our historical writing and historical perspective. In fact one wishes that every American would read and ponder over the content of pages 171 to 181.

Much of the ground covered by Professor Andrews has been traversed before. A few of his generalizations, notably that colonial merchants were not much addicted to politics (pp. 132-133) and those relative to the resolutions of the Stamp Act Congress (p. 135), are open to question. Moreover, the influence of land speculation and the trans-Allegheny region as factors leading to the Revolution are, in the opinion of the reviewer, not sufficiently stressed.

The book is extremely readable, but has no index or bibliographical notes.

HARRY J. CARMAN.

Columbia University.

Imperialism and World Politics

Syllabus on International Relations. By Parker Thomas Moon. The Macmillan Co., New York, 1925. xix, 276 pp. \$2.00.

Teachers who have been conducting classes in International Relations have felt that their work wanted effectiveness not because of a lack of materials, but from the fact that the materials hitherto have been poorly organized and widely scattered. As a result the trail-blazers have run their paths in almost every direction with results that have been but partially effective. In short some satisfactory synopsis or syllabus has become a necessity felt by most persons who have made explorations into this vast and intricate field.

This *Syllabus* drawn up by Professor Moon was subjected to critical examination and discussion by a group of professors from Columbia University and other institutions called together for that purpose by Dr. Stephen P. Duggan of the Institute of International Education. The book is the product of this co-operative criticism carried on for an entire year. As a result of such collaboration there has been produced a *Syllabus* that is informing and suggestive without being encyclopaedic; well-balanced without being strained; and sensible and scientific without being dogmatic.

The ten parts take a tremendous sweep in more than a hundred chapters. Three explanatory sections on Nationalism, Imperialism and Militarism covering 82 pages are followed by 50 pages on the History of International Relations. Perhaps the most suggestive portions of the *Syllabus* are the 8 chapters devoted to the Economic Problems of International Relations. The bibliographical apparatus is so well done that it is quite overwhelming.

Teachers of the social studies both in the higher and secondary institutions of learning should welcome this helpful guide by Dr. Moon and express their gratitude to The Institute of International Relations for issuing it. Although the *Syllabus* is skillfully organized by main heads and sub-heads, still for reference purposes an index of names and subjects should have been included.

A. C. FLICK.

New York State Historian.

The Open Door Doctrine in Relation to China. By Ming-chien Joshua Bau, Ph. D. Macmillan Co., New York, 1923. xxviii, 245 pp. \$2.50.

To those American citizens to whom "splendid isolation" is a synonym for national integrity or independence, Dr.

Bau's study will provide a pretext for "viewing with alarm." But to all others it provides a clear, succinct account of the open door policy both in practice and theory. It seems curious that a doctrine so closely connected with the United States should not have been the object of earlier study and investigation. Yet as the author points out the doctrine itself is implicit in the treaties of Nanking, and Tientsin negotiated in 1842 and 1858, although usually ignored by the American Government and people. It is also of importance to remember that the doctrine was early recognized by the Chinese themselves. Equality of treatment for all nations at Canton was long the established policy of the government, for a policy of equality was a better bulwark than one of privilege.

What really necessitated a new definition of the Open Door Policy was the rapacity with which the European powers divided China into spheres of influence and leased territories in 1898-9. Secretary Hay, but recently returned from London, was aware of the impending danger confronting China. Unable to take part, or allow American participation in the scramble, he enunciated his theory in 1899-1900 to the interested powers. Dr. Bau is careful to point out that in addition to the accepted policy of commercial equality, Secretary Hay added the preservation of Chinese sovereignty. Such a declaration had much influence in softening the treatment accorded to China after the Boxer uprising. After this event the main weight of the doctrine was directed against Russia, until Japan checked her designs. A further advance in the Open Door policy was the formation of the Chinese Consortium, providing for the equality of the powers in making loans to China. Unfortunately, President Wilson refused to adhere to this agreement in 1913. A still more serious breach was that caused by the Japanese 21 Demands presented to China in 1915. While the Shantung clause in the Treaty of Versailles all but shattered the doctrine, hope was soon revived by the new Consortium of 1920. At length the Washington Arms Conference, in the Nine Power Treaty, February 6, 1922, gave the Open Door policy, and the integrity of China, international standing. Thus the edifice begun by Secretary Hay was finally completed by Secretary Hughes.

This book of Dr. Bau's should be read by all those interested in the situation in the Far East. The value of the work is enhanced by an able introduction by Tyler Dennett, an authority and author of two valuable works on Eastern Asia. In addition there is an appendix of 34 pages given over to important treaties. A serviceable bibliography of sources gives opportunities for further reference and reading. In this case one wishes the author had made use of Chinese, Japanese or even European sources, rather than almost exclusively English and American. A series of serviceable maps indicating the European concessions, railways, and spheres of influence would have increased the value of the work, not only for the specialist, but the general public.

E. B. HEWES.

Columbia University.

Manchuria, Land of Opportunities. By the South Manchurian Railway Company. Rev. Ed. (New York, 1924. ix, 98 pp.)

This is no ordinary piece of railway advertising. The world traveler will find here no glowing account of scenery, waterfall or sunset. Instead the book will present to the business man a wonderful array of facts and figures which will convince him that the position of the Garden of Eden must be moved eastward. Indeed only when one reads of coal seams 78 to 480 feet thick, coal reserves of 200,000,000 tons, and petroleum 1,900,000,000 barrels does the real industrial significance of this empire of 356,000 square miles of land occupied by 25,000,000 people really become apparent. The more than one hundred photographs convincingly illustrate the progress that has been wrought by the wonderful ingenuity, perseverance and science of a railway company. Schools, wharfs, scientific laboratories, hotels, ships, docks, mines, are all expressions of the far-reaching

genius of the company. Still there are several defects in an otherwise intensely interesting and arresting story. The government is described as Chinese, but pages 8, 60 and 84 inform one that the leased territory around Kwantung and the railway zone is policed and administered by Japanese troops and officials. Likewise, little is said about trade restrictions imposed on foreigners, although complaints have been forthcoming regarding the neglect of the open door policy. In like manner the railway is shorn of all but economic motives or affiliations, pp. 59-60, while on pp. 63 and 66 we are given the sums invested in the enterprise by the Japanese government.—E. B. Hewes.

White and Black in East Africa. By Hermann Norden. F. R. G. (Small Maynard & Company, Boston, 1924. 304 pp. \$5.00.)

This is the typical travel book usually written by a well-traveled Englishman, member of geographic societies, in his lighter mood. It is cheerful, gossipy and far from dull. Then, too, we have an occasional historical reference which will recommend itself to all accurate readers, thus "Zanzibar since 1890 a protectorate of Great Britain." "Zanzibar is 54 miles long, 23 broad and has an area of 625 square miles. Pemba, 43 miles long, 14 miles broad, covers 369 square miles." While as to population we learn that the town of Zanzibar has "Europeans, 270; Arabs, 20,000; Asiatics, 15,000." Fortunately such erudition is rare, merely indicating that even tropical Africa has its compensating Saharas. The defect of the book is the rapidity with which the author "does" East Africa, and his lack of the native languages. This deprives the account of much sociological significance. Fortunately the author does not make up for his ignorance by cultivated animosities and prejudices. Yet the very important question of the Indians in East Africa is dismissed with a newspaper quotation.

Miscellaneous

History of Western Europe, Vol. I. By James Harvey Robinson. Ginn and Co., Boston, 1924. 531 pp.

This title is rather familiar. On the back of the title page appears the legend, "Copyright 1902, 1903, 1904, 1924." Twenty-two years have passed since college freshmen first learned to recite that "history includes all we know about everything that man has ever done, or thought, or hoped or felt." *The History of Western Europe* was Professor Robinson's first textbook and marked a great change in the presentation of European history to students, to students of secondary schools as well as of colleges, for the work was soon widely used. Since that time the author has been kept busy at the composition of other textbooks and supplementary readers. *Readings in the History of Western Europe, The Development of Modern Europe, Readings in Modern European History, Medieval and Modern Times*, all followed at intervals, and teachers will readily recall still other textbooks to which his name is attached.

During all these years Professor Robinson has continued his active teaching, but, despite this double duty, he has found time to write *The New History, The Mind in the Making*, and *The Humanizing of Knowledge*. Half philosophical, half historical, these works have reached thousands of adults and have led many to a new interest in historical reading. It is safe to say that he has introduced the subject of European history to more students of the present generation than any other writer, and that his writing has exercised a profound influence on other textbooks in the field. The author's revision of his first effort will therefore be counted as an event by his many friends.

This revision is to be completed in another volume. The present carries the narrative from the decline of the Roman Empire through the reign of Louis XIV, thus covering considerably more than half of the original work. While much of the material has been retained, not a single chapter has been left untouched. The enrichment is greatest in the cultural, as was to be expected, and less in the political, phases of the subject, but all have profited. The author's twenty-two years of experience in the art of

presentation is reflected in added clearness of plan and expression. The first fourteen chapters are virtually a series of essays, each dealing with a unified topic, and each practically self-sufficient. Some teachers may find it rather difficult to carry their students back to the founding of the Holy Roman Empire after finishing the Hundred Years War, and to the Crusades after the reign of Innocent III. After the fifteenth century the topical treatment is less sharp, though by no means turgid. Despite the introduction of much additional material, the individual items within the chapters are clearly set off and leave a sharper impression than the corresponding portions in the earlier work. The changed viewpoints of which the author speaks (p. iv) will probably appear more fully in the second volume, but are here strikingly evidenced in the discussion of the battle of Tours (p. 96).

The publishers, who did so much to make Professor Robinson's former textbooks attractive, have not failed him in this one. The appearance of the book, the clearness of the print, and the careful spacing of topics are better than in the original work. As the book is intended almost exclusively for college use, there is not much pictorial illustration. Unfortunately, most of the old maps are reprinted, the only important phase of the work which shows no improvement. It would have been better to have omitted some of them (as, for instance, the Migrations, p. 40). The fault only serves to emphasize, by contrast, the general excellence of the book as a whole.

A. C. KREY.

University of Minnesota.

It is a singular circumstance that almost a century should have elapsed since the death of Benjamin Constant before a complete biography appeared and that the first so to appear should be in English, Elizabeth W. Schermerhorn's *Benjamin Constant: His Private Life and His Contribution to the Cause of Liberal Government in France* (Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston and New York, 1924; xxiii, 421 pp., \$5.00). A much more exhaustive work in French by Rudler, the first volume of which appeared in 1909, has gone no further. Yet Constant was the chief political figure during the Hundred Days, one of the leading Liberal deputies under the Restoration, a writer of political and philosophical works and of at least one successful novel, besides being for fifteen years the Abélard to Mme. de Staël's Héloïse. Perhaps one reason is that Constant took no part in politics during the Revolution, his principal activity falling in the colorless and arid decade between 1820 and 1830.

One's first impression is that Miss Schermerhorn has written a book which overstates the personal side and particularly the love interest. Some three-fifths of the chapters deal mainly with the non-political Benjamin and in these the attention centers on his close friendship with three brilliant women, Mme. de Charrière, Mme. de Staël and Mme. Récamier, and on his marriage with two plain German wives, Minna von Cramm and Charlotte Hardenberg. But this criticism proves unwarranted. The fault is not Miss Schermerhorn's, but Benjamin's, who divided his life more or less in these proportions, and the political period, when she reaches it, is fully and satisfactorily studied. Here is set forth how faithfully Constant stood for the institutions of limited monarchy, for ministerial responsibility, an aristocratic upper house, for freedom of conscience and liberty of the press, in general for an English type of government. He also admired the United States, and Lafayette was his chief political associate.

A few minor criticisms may be made. To refer to Fouché, Danton and Tallien in a discussion of profiteering in 1795 (p. 146) is misleading; to allude to "the once elegant square in which Camille Desmoulins had set up the Tricolour" (p. 183) is incorrect. Her language is occasionally more French than English. Why "habile" (p. 292), "souvenirs" (p. 318) and "destitutions" (p. 322) rather than "skilful," "memories" and "removals"? Why such a mixture as "The Directoire and the Consulate" for a chapter-

heading? The "Tribunat" (p. 183) for the "Tribunate" is pedantic; the "Tribunat" (p. 346) for the "tribune" is wrong.

On the other hand, her translations of Constant's letters and verses are very happy and she has a keen sense of his charm as a stylist.

The book is a serious, able and well-documented study, of distinct value for the literary and political history of the early nineteenth century.

EUGENE N. CURTIS.

Goucher College.

Great Peoples of the Ancient World. By Dorothy M. Vaughan, M. A. (Longmans, Green & Co., London, 1925, x, 178 pp. \$1.20.)

The purpose of this book is to give children ten to twelve years of age brief pictures of the earliest empires around the Eastern Mediterranean. The book is scholarly, archaeologically correct and each chapter is packed with information. The one on the Hittites is particularly interesting to historians because of details hitherto quite inaccessible. Much ingenuity must have been spent in crowding into a limited space so complete a picture of life in these countries.

But it seems that the author has overestimated the mental capacity of her young readers. The vocabulary is too difficult for a child of that age; "diplomatist and intriguer" and "phenologist" are examples, while obscure names such as Tudhalla and Zalunna are hard to read or remember. Some of the subjects are rather advanced for a child, particularly the chapter on the Wandering Peoples and parts of the discussion on Babylonian religion.

Furthermore, children would get little conception of which nations were contemporaries, how long the various empires lasted and their place in history. The art of these ancient peoples is often so crudely done or has become so mutilated that only an archaeologist can appreciate it; hence the pictures taken from originals either make no impression on a young mind or arouse contempt for their crudity. See for example pages 16, 40, 116.

MARGARET BANCROFT.

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Book Notes

The new edition of Prof. Edward Mead Earle's *An Outline of Modern History: A Syllabus with Map Studies*, includes two new map studies, "Europe in 1824" and "The Near East, 1914-1924." These additions enable the student to note the complexity of the political map of Europe in 1924 as compared with 1914, the disintegration of the Russian and Austro-Hungarian empires, the effect of the principle of self-determination, the various objectives which the Allies sought through secret treaties, the recognition of the principle of nationality by the Treaty of Sèvres and the Peace of Lausanne, and the relative position of the various European powers in the Near East since the War. In its revised form this syllabus is one of the best available for teachers of modern history. (Macmillan Company, New York, 1925; x, 158 pp., \$1.60.)

The Normal Mind, by William H. Burnham, is an important book. It gets its value because it deals with a problem that has been overshadowed in recent years by the great emphasis that has been laid upon mental defects and mental deviations. Many people have come to exclaim "Is there no such thing as the normal mind?" The author has devoted himself through a long series of years to the subject of mental hygiene. There can be no mental hygiene unless the mentally unstable can be brought back to mental health. This presents the crucial problem whether education in general can affect one in vital ways. His answer is emphatically in the affirmative and he proceeds to show that the mechanism of education works through the "conditioned reflex." A reflex means ordinarily that a stimulus brings after itself a given response in a time and a strength that are both invariable. Surround the reflex

mechanism with different influences, such as organic conditions and mental states, and the response may be varied in both time and strength. Other responses can be substituted for the original. Morbid conduct may be displaced by sane behavior. Mental hygiene is largely a process of finding one's place in society and the task that fits one's capacity. The outlines and bibliographies at the end of the several chapters are surely a great help in making the book usable and intelligible. (D. Appleton & Company, New York, 1924; 702 pp.).—T. L. BOLTON.

Lincoln's Last Speech in Springfield in the Campaign of 1858 contains some hitherto unpublished remarks by the great American. The owner of the manuscript of the speech, Oliver R. Barrett, has had the book beautifully printed and appropriately illustrated, and includes with the address an introduction written by himself, a contemporary newspaper account, and the recollections of an eye witness set down in 1922. It is a small fragment in the Lincoln mosaic. (University of Chicago Press, 1925; 23 pp.)

Prof. Ernest Ludlow Bogart, of the University of Illinois, has performed a commendable service to students of economic history by publishing his little monograph entitled *Internal Improvements and State Debt in Ohio*. The first half of the book traces the story of the efforts of the western pioneers to secure adequate means of transportation, particularly routes to the markets of the East. The second part of the work summarizes the history of the state debt, inasmuch as this was incurred in construction of internal improvements. In his conclusions the author freely criticises certain aspects of Ohio's financial methods, particularly its sinking fund policy. The work which is based almost entirely on source material is a scholarly contribution. (Longmans, Green & Company, New York, 1924; 233 pp., \$2.50.)

The publications of the North Carolina Historical Commission continue to be both interesting and valuable. The *Letters and Papers of Governor T. W. Bickett, 1917-1921* (Raleigh, 1924; 394 pp.) is published as a part of the war records of the State. The volume well serves this purpose, but the scope is considerably wider. In the public papers, letters and addresses of this brilliant but somewhat unconventional official (who died less than a year after the expiration of his term) there is not only much information regarding conditions during the war and the years immediately following, but also considerable humor and homely philosophy. While the long program of social and economic legislation drawn up by this progressive leader was not fully realized on account of the war, the amount of actual accomplishment indicated is noteworthy. Another publication of the Commission, *The North Carolina Manual* for 1925, contains much information, not easily accessible elsewhere, concerning this interesting State and its institutions.

The Papers of James J. Webb, Santa Fé Merchant, 1844-1861, by Ralph Paul Bieber, furnishes a much needed supplement to Dr. Josiah Gregg's *Commerce of the Prairies* which is the chief authority on the overland commerce between the United States and Mexico by way of Santa Fé to 1844. Professor Bieber's work contains a brief historical sketch of Webb, the business in which he was engaged, and a detailed description of his papers. These papers are invaluable to any one who undertakes to construct the story of the Santa Fé trade between 1844 and the outbreak of the Civil War. (Reprinted from Washington University Studies, Volume XI, Humanistic Series, No. 2, pp. 255-305; 1924.)

The Phillips Exeter Academy, A History, by Laurence M. Crosbie (The Plimpton Press, Norwood, Mass., 1924; 347 pp.). Every person interested in the history of American education will profit from reading this book, for it sketches in considerable detail the story of one of Ameri-

ca's oldest and best known private secondary or preparatory schools. The volume is based on a wide range of sources, including many original letters and unpublished manuscripts. The first four chapters, dealing with the Phillips family and the founding of Phillips Exeter, contain much valuable material for the student of social history. The remaining chapters are devoted to brief biographical sketches of the academy's several principals and to the part they played in the school's development. The traditions and ideals of the school receive special emphasis and, as might be expected, sports and the lighter side of school life are not neglected. The volume is richly illustrated.

The Logger, a novel by Salome Ellis, depicts life in one of the great northwestern logging camps. It is chiefly valuable to the historian for the very clear and accurate picture which it gives of the relations between employer and employee, and for the program which it outlines for the betterment of working conditions in the lumber industry. (Small, Maynard & Company, Boston, 1924; 277 pp., \$2.00.)

The World Remapped, by R. Baxter Blair. This small work, with an ambitious and ambiguous title, is a very serviceable guide, summarizing the results of the World War and peace conferences. In addition to the countries affected, the rest of the world is treated in a statistical and geographic manner. The pamphlet itself contains no maps, but gives information of a territorial, economic, and racial character. It should prove useful to teachers dealing with the recent history of Europe. (Denoyer-Gepfert Co., Chicago, 1924; 3d ed., 80 pp.)

What Music Does to Us, by Milo E. Benedict, is a delightful little volume by a musician who is able to stand off and view objectively the art of music. It is written in the interest of more complete living. It reminds us that even music, pursued to the exclusion of other interests, will enslave and exploit us. Music exists to serve us, and not we to serve music; and it can serve us most efficaciously by taking its place as one of many interests. The literary style charmingly conveys the conviction of an artist who, one feels, is a true artist. This book will be heartily received by those who have grown weary of the maudlin sentimentality of so many music-lovers. (Small, Maynard and Company, Boston, 1924; 125 pp., \$1.50.)

In *The Conquests of Ceawlin, the Second Bretwalda*, Major P. T. Godsall accepts the theory that the Anglo-Saxons in invading Britain advanced up the Thames Valley, and, upon this basis, proceeds to trace the history of the conquest from the coming of the West Saxons, in the year 514, to the death of Ceawlin in 593. The book is undocumented and contains no bibliographical statement. Moreover, the author admits that many of his conclusions are based upon purely conjectural evidence. Except for the student of military history the work is of slight value. (John Murray, London, W. L., 1924; 252 pp., 10/6 net.)

Walter J. Harte's *Sir Francis Drake* is a tale of the sea indeed. What that stalwart worthy, Sir Francis Drake, would think at being classed as a Pioneer of Progress or Empire Builder, and sponsored by the Society for the Promoting of Christian Knowledge, may best be left to the imagination. Certain it is that he never would do as a model for a Sunday School class. Yet it may be that he was an early, though misled, promoter of Christian Knowledge, although directing his messages of iron at recalcitrant Papists. Yet the author faces the fact boldly and does not cover up the piratical acts of the hero with the false tinsel of hero-worship. A short list of works accompanies the book. The work is readable, clear and concise, and should appeal to any youth of normally healthy or piratical instincts. (Pioneers of Progress, Empire Builders, Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge Series, London. Macmillan, New York, 60 pp.)

In no sense can *Ireland, 1494-1829*, by the Rev. Robert H. Murray, Litt. D., be called a history of Ireland, although the title might lead to that conclusion. In the main the work consists of a critical account and evaluation of the primary and secondary sources for certain periods or problems in Irish history. The best descriptive account is that of the Irish Parliament, 1714-1829. The remainder of the work is devoted largely to religious, political and administrative details. The work is woefully deficient in attention to economic or social conditions, but one and a half pages being devoted to those phases of Irish history. Still, for the student, this work supplies a helpful and handy guide to the bibliography of Irish history. (Helps for Students of History, Nos. 32, 33, 34, 35, 47, 48. Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge Series, London; Macmillan, New York.)

Knights of Malta, 1523-1798, by R. Cohen. Here is a stirring narrative of the age-long conflict of the Cross with the crescent. From the year 1523, when the Order of St. John of Jerusalem was driven from Rhodes by Sultan Solymán, to the capture of Malta in 1798 by Napoleon, there is hardly a dull moment. This is especially true at the chapter given over to the heroic defense of Malta in 1565. After this date the Order suffered a slow decline. Rancour, national jealousy and political scheming reduced the once proud Order to a position of ignominy. The loss of property and recruits through the Reformation hastened this process. The final capture is one of treachery, discord, and hesitancy. A bibliography furnishes a guide for more extensive reading. (Helps for Students of History, No. 41. Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge Series, London; Macmillan, New York; iv, 64 pp.)

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Feb. 28 to Mar. 28, 1925

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Baker, Henry D. *Commodore Oliver H. Perry, U. S. N., and his connection with Trinidad*. Wash, D. C.: Am. Consular Assn. 16 pp.
- Buck, Norman S. *The development of the organization of Anglo-American trade, 1800-1850*. New Haven: Yale University Press. 202 pp. \$2.50.
- Chapman, Arthur. *The story of Colorado [a school history]*. Chicago: Rand McNally. 307 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$1.75.
- Clark, Elmer T. *The Latin immigrant in the South*. Nashville, Tenn.: Cokesburg Press. 57 pp.
- Coman, Katharine. *Economic beginnings of the far west. [Formerly published in 2 vols., "Explorers and Colonizers" and "American Settlers."]* N. Y.: Macmillan. 469 pp. (28 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
- Engelhardt, Fr. Zephyrin. *San Francisco, or Mission Dolores*. Chicago: Franciscan Herald Press. 447 pp. \$2.75.
- Fish, Carl Russell. *History of America*. N. Y.: Amer. Book Co. 629 pp. \$1.92.
- Folsom, Joseph F., and others. *The municipalities of Essex Co., New Jersey, 1666 to 1924*. 4 vols. N. Y.: Lewis Hist. Pub. Co. \$37.50.
- French, Allen. *The day of Concord and Lexington*. Boston: Little-Brown. 305 pp. (12 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
- Hayner, Rutherford. *Troy and Rensselaer Co., New York; a history*. 3 vols. N. Y.: Lewis Hist. Pub. Co. (2 p. bibl.). \$30.00.
- Hutt, Frank W., editor. *A history of Bristol County, Massachusetts*. 3 vols. N. Y.: Lewis Hist. Pub. Co. 823 pp. \$32.50.
- Klein, Harry M. J., editor. *Lancaster County, Pennsylvania; a history*. 4 vols. N. Y.: Lewis Hist. Pub. Co. \$32.50.
- Nunn, George E. *The geographical conceptions of Columbus; a critical consideration of four problems*. N. Y.: Amer. Geographical Soc. 148 pp. \$4.00.
- Oliver, William. *Eight months in Illinois, with information to emigrants. [Reprint of a book published in England in 1844.]* Chicago: Walter M. Hill, 22 E. Washington St. 260 pp. \$3.00.
- Relyea, Pauline S. *Diplomatic relations between the United States and Mexico under Porfirio Diaz, 1876-1910*. Northampton, Mass.: Smith College. 91 pp. (1 p. bibl.).
- Robinson, Alfred. *Life in California before the conquest. [Reprinted with additions from the 1846 edition.]* San Francisco: Press of Thomas C. Russell, 1734 19th Ave. 346 pp. \$15.00.
- Russell, Robert R. *A syllabus of American history, 1492-1924*. Kalamazoo, Mich.: The Author. 80 pp.
- Stevens, Frank E. *James Watson Webb's trip across Illinois in 1822*. Sycamore, Ill.: Sycamore Tribune Print. 16 pp.
- Stewart, Frank H. *History of the first United States Mint; its people and its operations*. Phila.: Wm. J. Campbell, 223 S. Sydenham St. 208 pp. \$5.00.
- Willard, Margaret W., editor. *Letters on the American Revolution*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 368 pp. \$7.50.
- Wingfield, Marshall. *A history of Caroline County, Virginia*. Newport News, Va.: Author, 133 31st St. 544 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
- Wortham, Louis J. *A history of Texas*. 5 vols. Fort Worth, Texas: Wortham-Molyneaux Co. 2101 pp. \$37.00.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Hamilton, Mary A., and Blunt, A. W. F. *An outline of Ancient History to A. D. 180*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Pr. 272 pp. \$1.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Bell, Walter G. *The great plague in London in 1665*. N. Y.: Dodd Mead. 386 pp. \$5.00.
- Holdsworth, W. S. *The influence of the legal profession on the growth of the English Constitution*. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Pr. 40 pp. 70 c.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Aubert, Maitre. *Bolshevism's terrible record*. Boston: Small Maynard. 138 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$1.00.
- De Vos, Julius E. *Fifteen hundred years of Europe*. Chicago: O'Donnell Press, 621 Plymouth Ct. 604 pp. \$5.00.
- Rodkey, Frederick S. *The Turco-Egyptian question in the relations of England, France, and Russia, 1832-1841*. In 2 parts. Urbana, Ill.: Univ. of Ill. 274 pp. (9 p. bibl.). \$1.00 each.
- Siebert, B. de, translator. *Entente diplomacy and the world, 1909-1914*. N. Y.: G. A. Schreiner, 43 Cedar St. 794 pp. \$9.00.

MISCELLANEOUS

- Hadden, Alfred C. *The races of man and their distribution*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 209 pp. (12 p. bibl.). \$2.50.
- Myers, Jack M. *The story of the Jewish people, vol. 3. [Since Bible times.]* N. Y.: Block Pub. Co. 200 pp. \$1.10.
- Shotwell, J. T., editor. *A practical plan for disarmament*. N. Y.: Carnegie Endowment for Internat. Peace. 67 pp.

BIOGRAPHY

- Flenley, Ralph. *Samuel de Champlain, founder of New France*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 149 pp. \$1.25.
- Lee, Sir Sidney. *King Edward VII; a biography*. Vol. I, from birth to accession, Nov. 9, 1841, to January 22, 1901. N. Y.: Macmillan. 842 pp. \$8.00.
- John, Gwen. *Queen Elizabeth, 1533-1603*. Boston: Small, Maynard. 188 pp. \$1.75.
- Stevenson, Gertrude S. *The letters of Madame; the correspondence of Elizabeth Charlotte of Bavaria, Duchess of Orleans*. Vol. 2, 1709-1722. N. Y.: Appleton. 307 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$5.00.
- Farington, Joseph. *The Farington diary*. Vol. 4, Sept., 1806-January, 1808. N. Y.: Doran. 305 pp. \$7.50.

- Henry, the Eighth. Miscellaneous writings of Henry the Eighth, King of England [etc.]. N. Y.: The Chaucer Head, 12 W. 47th St. 218 pp. \$12.00.
- Wallace, William S. Sir John Macdonald. N. Y.: Macmillan. 132 pp. \$1.25.
- Buchan, John. Lord Minto. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 352 pp. \$7.50.
- Mussolini, Benito. My diary, 1915-1917. Boston: Small, Maynard. 214 pp. \$2.00.
- Dennett, Tyler. Roosevelt and the Russo-Japanese War. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 368 pp. (10 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
- Halévy, Daniel. Vauban, builder of fortresses. N. Y.: Dial Press. 256 pp. \$2.75.
- Alderman, Edwin A. Woodrow Wilson. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 80 pp. \$1.00.
- Barton, Frederick M., and Arthur, Geo. C. A. The life of Lord Wolseley. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday Page. 397 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$6.00.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Buchan, John. Two ordeals of democracy. [An address on the testing of Democracy in the Civil War and the Great War.] Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 62 pp. \$2.00.
- Joad, C. E. M. Introduction to modern political theory. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. Pr. 128 pp. \$1.00.
- McDougall, William. The indestructible union. Boston: Little Brown. 262 pp. \$2.50.
- Wilkinson, William J. Tory democracy. N. Y.: Longmans, Green. 315 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$3.50.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- Sovereignty. Edward Jenks (*Contemporary Review*, April).
- Some Reflections on Democracy and Education. James R. Angell (*Yale Review*, April).
- Essays on the Economic Interpretation of History. I. A. W. Calhoun (*Journal of Social Forces*, March). Societal evolution.
- Doubts concerning the Foundations of Jurisprudence (continued). G. D. Valentine (*Juridical Review*, March).
- The Economists and the Public. Frank A. Fetter (*American Economic Review*, March).
- Danger-Signals in International Law. T. Baty (*Yale Law Journal*, March).
- The "Christian Ethic" and International Politics. Wickham Steed (*London Review of Reviews*, March-April).
- Religion and the Life of Civilisation. Christopher Dawson (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- The Problem of Man's Origin. Rev. Leander S. Keyser (*Bibliotheca Sacra*, April).
- The Place of the Amorites in the Civilization of Western Asia. George A. Barton (*Journal of American Oriental Society*, March).
- The Exposure of Infants in Roman Law and Practice. Max Radin (*Classical Journal*, March).
- Leviathans of Antiquity. Lieut. T. L. Schumacher (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, March).
- Greek Colonies and the Hinterland. Robert J. Bonner (*Classical Journal*, March).
- The Economic Conditions of Palestine in the Time of Jesus of Nazareth. Joseph Klausner (*Menorah Journal*, February).
- Discipline in the Ancient Church. J. Vernon Bartlett (*Pilgrim*, April).
- Athanasius: a Chapter in Church History. H. I. Bell (*Congregational Quarterly*, April).
- Christian Law and Discipline in the Middle Ages. A. L. Lilley (*Pilgrim*, April).
- Muslim Conquests. S. Khuda (*Calcutta Review*, February).
- The Economic Development of Yugo-Slavia. Dudley Heathcote (*Portnightly Review*, March).

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- Iranians and Slavs in South Russia. A. Kalmykow (*Journal of American Oriental Society*, March).
- Types of Indian States. N. Bandyopadhyaya (*Calcutta Review*, February).
- The System of Government in Marwar, 1532-1619. Sri Ram Sharma (*Calcutta Review*, February).
- Buddhistic Influence on Chinese Religious Life. Shih Hu (*Chinese Social and Political Science Review*, January).
- China in Evolution. (*Round Table*, March).
- The Political Aspect of International Finance in Russia and China. L. L. T'ang, and M. S. Miller (*Economica*, March).
- The Most Favored Nation Clause in China's Treaties (continued). V. S. Phen (*Chinese Social and Political Science Review*, January).
- A Note on the Black Death. A. L. Maycock (*Nineteenth Century and After*, March).
- The Reichstadt Agreement. George H. Rupp (*American Historical Review*, April).
- Portrait of Louis XVI: a Monarch who Aided America and Why. Philip Guedalia (*Harper's*, April).
- The Revolution in Place Names. W. Alison Phillips (*Contemporary Review*, April).
- The Decay of Europe. E. J. Dillon (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- Europe: 1914-1925. Lord Thomson (*Current History*, April).
- The Historical Personality of the Republic of Colombia (concluded). Carlos Garcia Prada (*Inter-America*, April).
- THE BRITISH EMPIRE
- The Place of Industrial Law in English Jurisprudence. Sir Henry Slessor (*Economica*, March).
- Imperial Unity. George E. Foster (*Nineteenth Century and After*, March).
- Britain's Changing Empire. Raymond L. Buell (*Current History*, April).
- The British Empire. J. D. Whelpley (*North American Review*, March).
- English Judges, VII. Earl of Birkenhead (*Empire Review*, March). Lord Chancellor Somers.
- Economic Theorists among the Servants of John Company, 1766-1806. J. C. Sinha (*Economic Journal*, March).
- Party Politics and the British Empire. Clarence W. Alvord (*Nineteenth Century and After*, March). A study of the American Revolution.
- Lord John Manners and his Friends. George Saintsbury (*Blackwood's Magazine*, April).
- The House of Commons, 1832-1867: a Functional Analysis. J. A. Thomas (*Economica*, March).
- Finmark in British Diplomacy, 1836-1855. Paul Knaplund (*American Historical Review*, April).
- The Change in Great Britain's Foreign Trade Terms after 1900. F. W. Taussig (*Economic Journal*, March).
- The Labor Party and the Trade Unions. Brig.-Gen. F. G. Stone (*Nineteenth Century and After*, March).
- "Pate Stewart"; or, the Rebel Earl. William Roughead (*Juridical Review*, March). Patrick Stewart, Earl of Orkney.
- Queen Victoria in Life and Death: Memories of a Court Sculptor, IV. Emil Fuchs (*World Today*, April).
- A London Guide-Book of 1808. W. Howard Hazell (*Nineteenth Century and After*, March).
- The London Corn Market at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century. C. R. Fay (*American Economic Review*, March).
- Chirographs: Their Place in the History of the Constitution of Scotland. Thomas Miller (*Juridical Review*, March).
- Some Early Franco-Scottish Relations. David Macritchie (*Scots Magazine*, March).
- Mediaeval Ireland. Robert Dunlop (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- Indian Unrest. Theodore Morison (*Nineteenth Century and After*, March).
- India: the Political Chaos. (*Round Table*, March).
- The Real South African Problem. L. E. Neame (*Quarterly Review*, January). The color question.
- Larger Aspects of the Egyptian Question. Valentine Chirol (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- The Quebec Fur-Traders and Western Policy, 1763-1774. Marjorie G. Reid (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
- Gibbon Wakefield and Canada subsequent to the Durham Mission, 1839-1842 (concluded). Ursilla N. Macdonnell (*Queen's Quarterly*, January, February, March).
- The Evolution of the Foreign Relations of Canada. George M. Wrong (*Canadian Historical Review*, March).
- GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS
- Evacuation of the American Wounded in the Aisne-Marne Battles, June and July, 1918. Col. J. R. Kean (*Military Surgeon*, April).
- The Massing of Artillery for the Battle of Vittorio Veneto (October 24-November 4, 1918). Maj. J. M. Eager (*Field Artillery Journal*, March).
- Romance of the Merchant Ships. J. J. Bell (*Quarterly Review*, January).
- The Exchange of Populations in the Balkans. A. A. Pallis (*Nineteenth Century and After*, March).
- The True Situation in the Balkans. Frederick Horner (*Current History*, April).
- Europe, the Covenant, and the Protocol. (*Round Table*, March).
- UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES
- The Meeting of the American Historical Association at Richmond. J. F. Jameson (*American Historical Review*, April).
- The Significance of the Section in American History. Frederick J. Turner (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March).
- Insular America. William H. Gardiner (*Yale Review*, April).
- Congressional Control of the Electoral System. Charles C. Tansil (*Yale Law Journal*, March).
- The Implied Powers under the Constitution. Haywood J. Pearce, Jr. (*Constitutional Review*, April).
- Value of the Legislative History of Federal Statutes. Clarence A. Miller (*University of Pennsylvania Law Review*, January).
- Judicial Review of Legislation by the Supreme Court. Robert von Moschzisker (*Constitutional Review*, April).
- Federal Criminal Laws and the State Courts. Charles Warren (*Harvard Law Review*, March).
- The Federal Constitution and the First Ten Amendments: Virginia Documents. W. B. Swaney (*Virginia Law Review*, January).
- The Influence of the American Doctrine of Judicial Review on Modern Constitutional Development. Henry H. Wilson (*Constitutional Review*, April).
- The Effect of Soviet Decrees in American Courts. Louis Connick (*Yale Law Journal*, March).
- A Rare Dutch Document concerning the Province of Pennsylvania in the Seventeenth Century. Daniel B. Shumway (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, April). "Detailed Information and Account for Those who are inclined to America and are interested in settling in the Province of Pennsylvania," published in 1686.
- La Harpe's First Expedition in Oklahoma, 1718-1719. Joseph B. Thoburn (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, December).
- A Case in Admiralty in Louisiana, 1741, before Salmon, J. Henry P. Dart (*Louisiana Historical Quarterly*, January, 1924, published February, 1925).
- New Jersey's Tea Party. Maj. W. I. Lincoln Adams (*Proceedings of the New Jersey Historical Society*, April).
- Benjamin Franklin, Advocate of Peace. Nathan G. Goodman (*Manufacturer*, January).
- A Spy under the Common Law of War. Wade Millis (*American Bar Association Journal*, March). André's capture, trial, and execution.

- George Washington, Esq. Nathan G. Goodman (*Manufacturer*, February).
- Martha Washington, an Informal Biography. Meade Minnegerode (*Saturday Evening Post*, April 4).
- Life of Thomas Johnson (continued). Edward S. Delaplaine (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, March).
- The Progress of Constitutional Theory between the Declaration of Independence and the Meeting of the Philadelphia Convention. Edward S. Corwin (*American Historical Review*, April).
- An Early Plan for the Development of the West. Harold M. Baer (*American Historical Review*, April).
- When England was Commercially Dependent. Nathan G. Goodman (*Manufacturer*, March).
- Western Opinion and the War of 1812. John F. Cady (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, October).
- The Second War for Independence. Harry E. Barnes (*American Mercury*, April).
- Dolly Madison. Gamaliel Bradford (*Virginia Quarterly Review*, April).
- Salem Vessels and Their Voyages (continued). George G. Putnam (*Essex Institute Historical Collections*, April).
- Random Recollections of "Hans Breitmann." Edward Robins (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, April).
- Prohibition in Early Wisconsin. Joseph Schafer (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March).
- The Minnesota Lumberjacks. Wright T. Orcutt (*Minnesota History*, March, continuing the *Minnesota History Bulletin*).
- The History of Penal Institutions in Ohio to 1850. Clara B. Hicks (*Ohio Archaeological and Historical Quarterly*, October).
- The Problems of a National Church before 1860. Heinrich H. Maurer (*American Journal of Sociology*, March). Studies in the sociology of religion, III.
- Disfranchisement of Negroes in New England. James T. Adams (*American Historical Review*, April).
- John Locke Scripps. Lincoln's Campaign Biographer. L. Scripps Dyche (*Journal of Illinois State Historical Society*, October).
- The Draft of 1863 and its Enforcement. Nathan G. Goodman (*Manufacturer*, November).
- Is the Printed Diary of Gideon Welles Reliable? Howard K. Beall (*American Historical Review*, April).
- Blockade Running during the Civil War (continued). Francis B. C. Bradlee (*Essex Institute Historical Collections*, April).
- Iowa at the New Orleans Fair. Bruce E. Mahan (*Palimpsest*, March).
- The University of Wisconsin in 1874-1887. Florence Bascom (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, March).
- Architects of the World's Fair. Jesse P. Weber (*Journal of Illinois State Historical Society*, October).
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- Woodrow Wilson: His Human Side. George Barton (*Current History*, April).

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